

# Junior-Senior HIGH SCHOOL Clearing House

## MISCELLANEOUS PROBLEMS

PHILIP W. L. COX, Chairman

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# JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

VOLUME V

OCTOBER, 1930

NUMBER 2

## EDITORIAL

"The best laid schemes o' mice an' men gang aft agley"—but fortunately neither grief nor pain necessarily follows every disruption.

The plans for publishing special numbers throughout this Journal's career depend on the ability of each committee in charge of a number to carry through its schedule. There is also the assumption—an utterly fatuous one—that each committee will provide just the amount of "copy" needed to fill one number of the CLEARING HOUSE.

As the time comes for the October number to go to press, the editors find themselves endowed with a wealth of excellent articles which should certainly be published as soon as possible—articles written for earlier numbers which could not be included therein because of the limitations of space. And the committee which had been preparing the number of Tests and Measurements scheduled for October has asked for more time. The chairman of this committee, Dr. Arthur D. Whitman, has undertaken a very important project during the summer of 1930; he has charge of the Chautauqua center of the New York University Summer School and this responsibility has demanded all of his time and energy.

In view of the desirability of publishing immediately the excellent articles included in this number, it has seemed unwise to rush through a Tests and Measurements num-

ber. Instead, the editors have granted the request of the committee for a postponement of its number, and are substituting the present omnibus issue.

### IN THIS NUMBER

Do junior-high-school teachers lack group consciousness? Not in New Jersey. In that State they have earned the respect of schoolmen of all levels by their intelligently directed organization.

Junior high schools are measured, praised, blamed, and accepted with resignation. Not since Charles Hughes Johnston raised the question in 1916 has any one inquired of what a junior high school really consists until W. W. Coxe surprised us by turning philosopher instead of "staying put" as a researcher.

Perhaps Miss Molle's "The Dugout" is an adequate answer to Dr. Coxe's query—even though its locale was not an organized junior high school. Indeed, the essence of the new contents and methods described in the articles dealing with social science, English, and industrial arts may suggest the answer to whoever can distill it. And the suggestion in Allen Wiley's poem is too direct to be missed by any one as intelligent as our readers all are!

### WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE?

The American high school of 1930 is an anomalous institution. Two conflicting

functions it has, and it dare neglect neither one of them. As a preparatory school for a few select colleges it is protected not only by the social prestige of the colleges and their graduates but also by State legislation and regulations. As an institution for educating adolescent boys and girls, it is controlled by what these youths can and will do and by what the respected adults of the community want them to do.

As a preparatory school it fails if its standards are lowered; as a school for all the children of all the people it fails if its standards are raised so high that many pupils fail.

Time was when very few of the adolescent children of the community went to the public high school—less than 6 per cent as recently as 1890. For these few youths the high school's chief duty was the preservation of an intellectual culture which characterized "educated" men: Latin, mathematics, rhetoric, and English literature. Modern foreign languages, textbook science, and some business arts were sometimes also included in the curriculum.

High-school graduates either entered academic colleges and technical schools or they remained in the community as socially élite young men and young women. Seldom did high-school graduates of the '90's read Latin, French, or Thackeray, practice rhetorical expression, or work out geometry originals. Nevertheless, they set a standard. They were high-school graduates. Parents who themselves lacked this distinction desired that their children should have high-school educations.

Then came national prosperity. Gradually the aspirations of parents and children became realizable. In 1904, 12 per cent of the children of high-school age were enrolled in high school; by 1918 more than 22 per cent, and in 1926 more than 50 per cent. In urban areas, villages, and cities,

approximately 75 per cent of the children of high-school age of America are now enrolled in secondary schools.

#### PURPOSES AND PRACTICES MODIFIED

The public high schools, supported as they are by universal taxation and controlled by popularly elected school boards and legislatures, have been forced to modify their purposes and their practices, at least in theory. They have been obliged to justify their existence in terms of human attributes rather than in terms of subject mastery.

Unless the second periphrastic conjugation is likely to contribute to the knowledge or habits necessary to health or some other justifiable objective, then it loses its importance. And this statement holds for factoring "Newton's Laws," *The Vicar of Wakefield*, and the "Decemvirate." The academic curriculum, this age-old gem, the quintessence of "culture," is no longer recognized as socially justifiable except for individuals who enjoy it.

The old guard dies, but it never surrenders. The secondary schools are staffed with teachers with vested interests in academic subject mastery. The colleges are turning out many thousands of graduates each year who desire to teach and who know far more of science facts, history dates, grammar rules, and mathematical tricks than they do of any of the "seven objectives."

The new process of secondary education threatens the jobs or the promotions of hundreds of thousands of scholastics. "Jobs are bones," says one of Jack London's characters. "And men are dogs fighting for them." Even academicians are forceful fighters.

#### CULTURE AND STANDARDS STILL RULE

The embattled subject-matter teachers in secondary schools and colleges are struggling determinedly against overwhelming odds. They are supported by many mem-

## EDITORIAL

bers of the community who pride themselves on their former academic attainments. The banner of "high standards" and "culture" is the aegis. College clubs and women's clubs organize to the support of "culture" and "standards." Colleges' entrance examinations increase in difficulty and futility. The per cent of failures in high-school academic subjects increases.

Parents who criticize the school for failing their children are kindly told that these youths do not belong in the public school, which is supported by public taxation but is dedicated to "high standards." Nevertheless, the parents are not satisfied. And every one is unhappy.

Local school boards are often dominated by the academically élite. State legislatures are, however, often controlled by blocs which reflect popular demands. The lobbies maintained by the Trade and Labor Council, by the Manufacturers' Association, and by the Child Labor Committee know what they want.

State legislation, while not rescinding the protection given to subject teaching through certification of teachers, definitions of classes of schools, and the rest, nevertheless has compelled local school boards to provide for the health objective and the citizenship objective and the vocational objective more adequately than most school administrators otherwise would have done.

Not all academic high-school principals and teachers are so purblind. Many of them welcome the challenge of the twentieth century. They understand that the school must parallel the aspirations and developments of the commercial, industrial, civic, and leisure world. They know that the influx of children into the high school is a symptom of social change. And they seek to institute an educational régime which may aid each youth to attain physical and mental health, to control fundamental knowledges and skills, and to grow in do-

mestic, civic, and economic efficiency, desirable enjoyments of leisure, and good will.

## SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES STRESSED

In all important fields of human activities, men and women are needed who can get along with each other and with their superiors and subordinates; men and women who can stand ridicule and criticism, who can persevere in the face of jealousy and friction, who will not wilt under discouragement nor flare up in anger and pitch their jobs.

In fact, the whole complex of vocational knowledge and skills, of civic information, and of household arts forms a relatively small part of the value of a person on the job, in the home, in his neighborhood, or in his larger community. More important characteristics are his temperamental attributes, native and acquired.

"My idea of university training," says Robert M. Hutchins, president of the University of Chicago, "is to unsettle the minds of young men, to widen their horizon, to inflame their intellects." Thus the youngest of the recognized men of the future speaks of college. His conception is equally valid for the high school. Hence, the modern creatively controlled high school.

The American high school has been moving very fast, but one cannot assert that it has been gaining very rapidly in the solution of the great problems which it and society face. If its sponsors and its teachers desire that this youthful institution shall contribute positively to the success of our industrial democracy, they must be prepared for far more rapid changes in its educational program than now characterize it. The spirit of the emerging high school is the spirit of youth. If it will bravely face its problems regardless of the criticism of the regressive elders, it will contribute richly to the welfare of our nation and of our world.



## TEACHER OR FACTORY HAND?

A protest bearing this title which appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* for April, 1930, was reprinted in the *Journal of the National Education Association* for June. The injustice to the teacher and to the pupils who need personal guidance is laid to the obvious causes—large classes and too many teaching periods. The tragedy, it seems to the writer of this editorial, lies rather in the Frankenstein monster which we have built up, and which the teacher in common with most of her professional brothers and sisters accepts without challenge.

The picture painted is true enough: "—the board of education in the largest and richest city in the United States . . . think of me as in a factory, a very noisy factory where I am minding 175-200 bobbins to see that they all turn with the same speed. But I am a poor factory hand. Very often a bobbin breaks or a thread that is being wound gets tangled. I quickly discard the broken and the tangled spools so as not to disturb the even whir of the other bobbins. But because my foreman always sees my bobbin running smoothly he thinks I am an efficient worker; he doesn't know what a cheat and a liar I am."

The emphasis on even-whirring bobbins, however, is a mere reflection of our age-old faith in the accumulation of erudition as a substitute for education. The cheating and lying are not of the teacher or of the principal. They are inherent in the unreality and artificiality of secondary schooling.

Such unreality and artificiality are involved in the subject-matter concept which underlies departmentalization of instruction, and the "one hundred seventy-five papers which I must correct every two weeks." If the production of reams of themes is the outcome sought, then of course factories and bobbins are harmonious conceptions of the school.

If instead we would promote the development of the personalities of pupils—their individualities and initiative and self-reliance—then to be sure we must reduce the number of bobbins and transform them into flesh-and-blood youths. But mere reduction of numbers is less than half the solution. We must conceive the teacher as guide, philosopher, and friend, as educator and not as a subject-matter specialist. He must come nearer to being a teacher of whole boys and girls; not English-composition boys and history girls.

Until we can free ourselves from subject-matter specialization and certification and teaching, we must pay the price by making our teachers factory hands and our pupils bobbins. The efforts of Detroit teachers to develop an accomplishment test in terms of educational objectives, explained in this issue of the *CLEARING HOUSE*, marks a real beginning in the reorientation of secondary education. Such reorientation, when accomplished, will extricate teachers, children, and the school from the tangled jungle of verbalism and abstraction which makes of secondary education a frenzied, planless confusion.

P. W. L. C.

## THE NEW JERSEY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

CHARLES H. BEEK

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Beek, principal of the Summit Junior High School, was asked to give a brief history of the New Jersey Junior High School Teachers' Association, of which he is president. Miss Agnes Wharton and Miss Grace Dunn, past presidents, supplied Mr. Beek with some of the information presented in the accompanying article.

F. E. L.

The need for organizing the junior-high-school teachers of the State of New Jersey became evident at the annual convention of

the New Jersey State Teachers' Association held in Atlantic City in November, 1924. More than twenty departmental



## NEW JERSEY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

meetings, dealing directly with significant problems of the various educational bodies of the State, were scheduled for this convention, but there was no program designed specifically for the junior-high-school unit. This was felt to be an unfortunate circumstance. The progressive junior-high-school teacher was facing new problems in the junior-high-school organization. The general trend in secondary education was decidedly for the 6-3-3 plan. The number of junior-high-school teachers was growing with great rapidity. Several New Jersey cities were working entirely on the 6-3-3 plan. These teachers wanted to tackle the job in the right way and do it thoroughly. They were, therefore, determined to take steps to secure a place on the program for the ensuing year.

### METHOD OF ORGANIZING

Upon inquiry it was found that in order to be recognized as a distinct unit, groups must organize and ally themselves with the State association. To this end, then, a self-appointed committee set to work.

Miss Lura Briggs, president of the Newark Junior High School Association, at the suggestion of her principal, Mr. Raymond B. Gurley, wrote to the Assistant Commissioner of Education, Dr. Lambert L. Jackson, requesting a list of the junior high schools of the State. The list was promptly supplied and a circular letter was sent to each junior-high-school principal, urging him and his teachers to attend a meeting for the purpose of discussing the advisability of organizing a junior-high-school teachers' association in the State. In response to this appeal twenty-eight teachers, representing junior high schools in Camden, Jersey City, Maplewood, Newark, South Orange, Summit, Trenton, and West Orange met in the South Park Presbyterian Church in Newark, May 16, 1925.

The meeting was called to order by Miss Briggs, who spoke of the importance of the

junior-high-school movement, the specific problems confronting those responsible for the administration and instruction in the junior high schools and the advisability of organizing in order to study and attempt to solve some of the problems of the junior-high-school teacher.

Miss Agnes Wharton, who at that time was a member of the Executive Committee of the New Jersey State Teachers' Association, was chosen chairman of the meeting. Miss Wharton spoke of the need for immediate action in the matter of organizing in order that the junior-high teachers might be recognized and given a place on the program at the October meeting of the State Teachers' Association. After a lengthy discussion a motion by Dr. James T. Mackey of Jersey City "to organize as the New Jersey Junior High School Teachers' Association" was put to vote and carried. Officers were elected to act until September, when a regular meeting of the association would be held.

The chair appointed a committee to draw up a constitution and by-laws to be presented to the association at the September meeting.

The second meeting of the New Jersey Junior High School Teachers' Association was held in Oppenheim and Collins's auditorium in Newark, September 19, 1925. About fifty were present. At this time the temporary officers were made permanent, the constitution and by-laws were presented and adopted, and plans for the future of the organization were freely discussed. The officers of the association were given authority to make arrangements for a junior-high departmental program to be given at the October convention in Atlantic City.

### BENEFITS OF THE ORGANIZATION

1. Junior-high-school teachers of the State meet twice each year, and, up-to-date, have been addressed by speakers who have

been in every case authorities in this particular field.

2. Round-table discussions, led by the teachers actually engaged in junior-high-school work, have been very popular at these meetings. There have been an eagerness and spontaneity in these round-table meetings that is not general in the usual educational meeting. The conferences between teachers who are confronting similar problems, and who can turn to little or no literature on the subject, have been very beneficial.

Discussion of topics such as homeroom procedure; junior-high-school newspaper; financing and organizing a band; differentiation of course of study in English to the academic, commercial, and practical-arts group; clubs; "try-out" courses, their value, etc., have given help to many puzzled teachers.

3. Many senior-high-school teachers have attended these meetings, in some cases because of the caliber of the speaker secured by the Junior Association, and they have returned and become interested. Any means whereby a closer articulation can be secured in all plans of work between the junior and senior teacher is worth any amount of effort. In a small degree, I believe that the New Jersey Junior High School Teachers' Association has done this.

4. Immediately upon our organization as junior-high-school teachers, the New Jersey

State Teachers' Association recognized the group as a unit and programmed this as a special group at the November meeting. Similarly the Secondary Association recognized the junior teachers and not only invited them to participate at the annual meeting, held in New Brunswick, but in 1928 also made the junior-high-school organization and the junior-high problem the keynote of their entire meeting.

5. Every year, at the annual spring meeting, the members of the New Jersey High School Teachers' Association meet socially at a luncheon.

#### GROWTH OF ORGANIZATION

The five years that the New Jersey Junior High School Teachers' Association has been in existence has been a period of growth. The membership was increased from twenty-eight to approximately one thousand. The treasury is in a prosperous condition. The semiannual conferences have contributed much towards promoting a spirit of good fellowship and developing a professional attitude among the members of the group. The junior-high-school teachers, through their organization, have had the opportunity of hearing many of the outstanding authorities on junior-high-school education. There is scarcely a community in New Jersey where junior high schools have been established that is not interested in the organization.

### WHEN IS A SCHOOL A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

WARREN W. COXE

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Coxe is director of the Education Research Division of the New York State Education Department. The present article shows the results of a study of junior high schools in New York State.*

F. E. L.

The junior high school is an infant in our school system. There are some signs that it is maturing, but there are also many signs of immaturity. From the standpoint of organization, the junior high school with its separate corps of teachers and indepen-

dent organization has many signs of maturity but, from the standpoint of the subject matter being taught, there is still uncertainty and need for much development.

We are often too easily satisfied with having attained the form and appearance

## WHEN IS A SCHOOL A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

of a junior high school. We point with pride to junior-high-school buildings. We get a great amount of popular approval through the greater freedom the students have in junior high schools than in the older organization. The extracurricular activities make an appeal to arouse popular interest. We are too often satisfied with a development which has gone no further than these accomplishments. There is a far more fundamental issue involved than in these more superficial characteristics of the junior-high-school organization. It is suggested that we would do well to plan more carefully these fundamental issues before being satisfied with our result.

We should not minimize the characteristics of the junior high school which have just been enumerated for they all mean a much richer life for the student, but the greatest and most important contribution the junior high school can make lies in a fundamental reorganization of the courses of study usually offered in these years. We might go to the extent of saying that a junior high school is a real junior high school to the extent to which it has revised its course of study from that which is traditionally offered to that which will carry out the aims and purposes of this organization. To those who may say that the greatest contribution of the junior high school lies in its organization and in its offering of extracurricular activities let us note what seems a parallel instance; namely, that it is sometimes said that the greatest contribution of the college is in the social contacts, in the sports, in the fraternity life which it offers, and not in the subjects which are studied. This seems frequently to be true, but when it is true it is a sad reflection upon the courses of study. If any junior high school depends upon other things than its courses of study to justify its existence, we may venture to say that it is doing a very superficial and inadequate job.

### COURSES OF STUDY IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The rest of this article will report an analysis of the courses of study offered in New York State junior high schools. What will be said is, in the main, not very complimentary. It will point out deficiencies rather than contributions.

The source of the material for this study is in part a questionnaire filled out by junior-high-school teachers on which were listed the textbooks used, the topics studied in the order of presentation, the aims of the course, individual reports, clubs, etc., all of which have a more or less direct bearing upon the content of the courses. The texts which were reported by the teachers have been analyzed in considerable detail in order to discover the number of pages devoted to each of the major topics. By these means we have a rough idea of the subject matter to which the junior-high-school pupil is exposed.

Before mentioning any particular junior-high-school subjects, certain observations can be made which are characteristic in general of all subjects. It became obvious as we studied our data that the seventh- and eighth-grade subject matter does not differ materially from the traditional seventh- and eighth-grade subject matter. The English, mathematics, history, etc., are nearly the same in content and organization as have been offered under the old grade system; the ninth grade contained the ninth-grade material of the traditional four-year senior high school. Thus, there seems to be a break between the eighth and ninth grade which has traditionally existed and which is not met by the newer type of organization.

A second general observation is that there is stress upon the formal aspects of every subject to the neglect of other aspects which are considered more characteristic of the junior high school; that is, there is great emphasis on the mechanical phases of lan-



guage, drill work in arithmetic, informational phases of history, etc., and relatively little emphasis on the problem side of these subjects or upon their application to everyday life. There is thus little emphasis upon initiative or creativeness or the encouragement of widening interests. In other words, there is a general tendency for the purposes of the courses, in the junior high schools studied, to follow the traditional purposes of the same grades when under the older type of organization. The distinctive purposes which have been talked about as peculiar to the junior high school do not appear to have a prominent place.

The third observation relates to the subjects which are reported by these junior high schools. In general the subjects are the traditional subjects. In a few instances, however, there is evidence of a reorganization of subject matter through such courses as general language, general mathematics, general science, social studies, etc. In comparatively few of the junior high schools, however, is there evidence of this trend.

One should not be discouraged because there is comparatively little evidence of these newer trends. The fact that they exist in some junior high schools possibly should be sufficient to give us considerable encouragement. We would be unfair to the junior-high-school movement were we to expect evidences of maturity. That there are these beginnings in a few places and in a few subjects indicates the youth of the organization and also its virility.

In the space available, one can but enumerate somewhat hurriedly and dogmatically some of the conclusions which were reached concerning each of the major subjects in the junior-high-school program of studies.

#### ENGLISH

English is a required subject in all three years. The same topics are repeated in all grades, varying somewhat in the amount of

emphasis. The amount of literature read is surprisingly small. On the average the seventh grade reads about 1100 pages; the eighth grade, 850 pages; and the ninth grade, 1200 pages. An average pupil could undoubtedly read all this material in a month and yet the junior high school spreads it over a year. The essay and the poem, for no accountable reason, are given more attention in the seventh and eighth grades than in the ninth. Descriptive and argumentative material seems to be totally lacking in all grades. Narration is prominent in all grades but especially so in the ninth grade. It is difficult to justify this diversity of emphasis.

Grammar receives a great amount of attention in all grades but particularly in the seventh and eighth. Of the composition and grammar texts more than half the pages are devoted to technical grammar, whereas about ten per cent are given over to composition. In the ninth grade, between a third and a half of the space is devoted to technical grammar. While some grammar can easily be justified, it is doubtful if it is of so much greater value than composition as to warrant this amount of attention.

The number of aims listed by the teachers run from 139 in the seventh grade to 180 in the eighth. About 37 per cent of the aims mentioned in the seventh grade have to do with the development of skills, habits, and the acquisition of knowledge. In this same grade 38 per cent are directed towards self-expression and self-activity. Some of the latter are as follows: "to develop effective self-expression, oral and written"; "to induce pupils to express themselves fully, freely, and spontaneously"; and "to write good letters." In the eighth grade there seems to be less effort made to develop self-expression, for only 22 per cent of the aims can be so classified. The ninth grade apparently attempts to emphasize appreciation although the predominant aim is that of



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formal training. Certain teachers recognize that English can be used to cultivate desirable personality characteristics, training in critical thinking, to develop attitudes of appreciation, and to train for citizenship.

On the whole, one can safely say that there is no subject in the junior high school which is in greater need of complete reorganization than English. There is much evidence of careful thinking and planning on the part of the teachers of this subject, but the lack of any coördination of the work of successive years makes one doubtful whether there can be much real growth in the power of pupils to handle the English language or to appreciate good literature.

### LATIN

The introduction of Latin in the eighth grade by many junior high schools is an effort to lengthen the period for training in Latin. It tends to relieve the congestion of material which we have long recognized as characteristic of first-year Latin. By bringing Latin into the eighth grade it has been possible to make certain changes of emphasis. Less attention is given to the mechanics and more attention to extended reading and to the influence of Latin upon English. In spite of these excellent tendencies there is a comparative dearth of supplementary material used, this in spite of the fact that in the last few years there has been an abundance of easy, interesting Latin published. Teachers show little agreement in regard to the topics which should be presented in eighth- and ninth-grade Latin or as to the order in which they should be presented. Their aims are, in the main, formal, and relate to the mastery of subject matter but there is evidence of some emphasis upon training correct attitudes, ideals, appreciations, and some critical thinking. One would be correct in summarizing the Latin situation by saying that Latin in the eighth grade is still in an experimental stage, whereas ninth-grade Latin

tends to follow the traditional procedures. Eighth-grade Latin is, therefore, more responsive to the newer thought with regard to method and subject matter than ninth-grade Latin.

### MODERN LANGUAGES

Of the modern languages, French is easily the most popular. German and Spanish were found in too few schools to warrant a separate summary. French, however, is never taught in grade seven but is sometimes begun in grade eight and sometimes in grade nine. The same textbook seems to be used in both grades eight and nine. The common procedure in both grades is to begin the teaching of French with pronunciation and the common use of the articles. Only two or three teachers begin with conversation. Out of 27 aims in the eighth grade of French teaching, 18 are easily classed as formal. These formal aims are such as the following: "To ensure a reasonable degree of phonetic accuracy and to lead the pupils to feel its importance," and "to teach precision in the use of words and to give a clearer understanding of grammatical relations." Six of the aims include the development of attitudes and interests; two, the training in thinking, and one only is exploratory in nature. The aims in the ninth grade are even more frequently formal than in the eighth.

Only two schools report courses in general language. Although this seems to be relatively unimportant, from the standpoint of frequency, it probably represents what in New York State may be considered a new movement and therefore more worthy of attention than its frequency indicates. The two schools represent two diverse policies with regard to the teaching of general language, which are probably typical of what is found the country over. In one school the aims are to learn something about the history of our language, to ac-

quire a knowledge of two declensions and conjugations of Latin, to give the pupil a background for accepting or refusing Latin in school, to introduce the French language, and to increase the vocabulary. The aims of the other school are to furnish a background for each of the most common languages, Greek, Latin, German, Spanish, and French, to make this study a stepping-stone to the study of language itself, and to link the study to the present everyday life of the pupils. In the first case the pupils have actual experience with two languages; in the other, they study the cultural background for each of several languages. Both are exploratory in character.

#### MATHEMATICS

Arithmetic is the dominant subject in seventh- and eighth-grade mathematics. The same textbook is found in these years as in the traditional grade organization. General mathematics textbooks are used in but few schools and only occasionally is algebra introduced in the eighth grade. Algebra is the generally accepted course in the ninth grade with commercial arithmetic and general mathematics introduced occasionally. The most important topics from the standpoint of time and space in the seventh and eighth grades are percentage and miscellaneous problems. In the ninth grade equations hold first place. Again the formal aim takes first place with but little exception. The command of fundamental processes is considered the most important aim of mathematics. A very few teachers recognize the contribution that mathematics can make to the establishment of attitudes and appreciations. The exploratory and vocational aims are rarely mentioned. Mathematics has, therefore, shown little tendency in the majority of the schools to become adapted to the conceptions of the junior high school. To the extent which the aims of the junior high school are worked into the teaching of mathematics, to the extent to which there has been a

break with the traditional organization of subject matter, we are safe in saying that mathematics is contributing to the junior-high-school ideal.

#### SCIENCE

No trend is evident in regard to a reorganization and unifying of science in the junior high school. General science and general biology are both found but there does not seem to be any indication that there is any natural sequence. Besides these two sciences we find a few schools giving physiology, nature study, and hygiene. General science is taught in all grades of the junior high school but is generally confined to grades eight and nine. An analysis of the textbooks used in these grades indicates that practically the same topics are studied in both grades but studied more extensively in the ninth than in the eighth. From the standpoint of frequency of mention, the most important aim of general science is found to be that of acquiring attitudes and ideals. The formal aim, that is, the acquisition of subject matter, is given less emphasis than in most other junior-high-school subjects. Biology is the usual ninth-grade science. The emphasis is upon physiology and personal hygiene, these two subjects taking about two thirds of the space of the average biology textbooks. In contrast to general science, the formal phases of biology constitute the most important aims. Because biology is so vital to the pupil's life it is unfortunate that the subject has been made so formal. Physiology is usually found in the seventh grade when offered at all. While the information we were able to gain from the questionnaires indicates that the subject is very formal, it is probable that it has been made more interesting and practical than it was years ago.

#### SOCIAL STUDIES

The subject matter recently classed under the heading of social studies is quite universally studied in these schools under

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traditional headings. While there may be courses which are known as social studies or social science, an examination of their content makes one realize that they are nothing more than the traditional geography, history, or civics. An attempt to treat social studies as a unit proved unsuccessful and it became necessary to discuss them under the traditional headings just mentioned. Geography is taught almost exclusively in the seventh grade. Where taught in other grades it is usually commercial or industrial geography. The textbook analysis showed 106 topics listed for study in the seventh grade. Of course, not all of these topics are studied in any one school. There was a noticeable lack of agreement among the teachers as to what constituted an acceptable topic in geography, and a further lack of agreement as to the order in which the topics should be presented to the class. The wording of the topics and the study of the aims which the teachers gave indicated an undue emphasis on the factual side and comparatively little emphasis on the great human side of geography. For example, teachers listed such topics as the following: physical geography, products of the United States, Europe, world geography, railroad and steamship lines. It will be easily recognizable that some of these topics are so large and general as to make it impossible for us to know exactly what was actually done in class. Others are specific and indicate definite lines of study. Of the 107 aims which were recorded, 42 are definitely formal, 19 refer to citizenship, 18 are exploratory, and 12 refer to the development of attitudes. Other aims are mentioned less frequently.

History is confined to the seventh and eighth grades. The emphasis seems to be upon the social and industrial movements and military and local history is given second place or no place at all. The work of the seventh and eighth grades is quite distinct,

more distinct than we were able to discover in other subjects. There is strong evidence that the teachers of history are constantly striving to develop certain emotionalized attitudes towards historical problems and getting away from the more formal factual routine phases which marked history teaching years ago.

Ninety-five different aims of history teaching were mentioned by teachers. If we group these we find that 38 refer to mastery of subject matter and may be classed as formal. Some of these are as follows: "necessary subject matter presented to pass course," and "to teach the most important facts of American history from the time of Columbus to Washington's administration." Twenty-three per cent of the aims refer to citizenship; they are such as the following: "intelligent associational living," "to arouse patriotism and respect for America's attitude in foreign affairs," "the development of appreciations, of ideals, and critical thinking" is mentioned a few times. There is thus somewhat less evidence of the formal in history than is found in some of the other junior-high-school subjects.

Civics is usually a ninth-grade subject. It is the common procedure to use a great variety of supplementary books in the teaching of civics. There is a tendency in these texts to emphasize community life and community organizations. Thus, there is evidence that the purpose of civic teaching is looked upon in a very vital way as training for citizenship. Possibly if we were to inquire into the meaning of "training for citizenship" the situation would not appear to such good advantage for practically never in any of the reports was the meaning of citizenship made clear. It is difficult to evaluate the civics in grades seven and eight because it is so frequently made a part of the history teaching. What has been said refers particularly to ninth-grade civics.



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## MUSIC

Music is usually required in grades seven and eight. The textbooks are generally collections of songs. Music teachers are very far from an agreement as to what constitutes a topic for study. While, as in most of the other junior-high-school studies, the formal aims seem to have first place, they are closely followed by appreciation and interest aims. In the ninth grade elective courses are given such as theory, choral music, and orchestra.

## ART

Art or drawing instruction is offered in all three years. The topics covered by the pupils do not vary much from grade to grade and there is little or no indication of progression. Textbooks are not used, probably due to the nature of the subject matter. It is noticeable that the aims of art teaching lay emphasis upon the acquisition of attitudes and appreciation, and comparatively little upon the formal or informational side. The answers or comments made by the teachers give one the impression that there is a sincere desire to broaden and enrich the lives of the pupils through contact with the beautiful. They also wish to give the pupil a new medium of self-expression through which he can exercise his originality and creative ability.

## BUSINESS TRAINING

The most useful, commercial subject offered in the junior high school is junior business training. Typewriting is next, followed by bookkeeping and stenography. The topics mentioned by the teachers are usually quite formal in nature. The acquisition of skills seems to be considered the most important aim in these courses. The formal aims are probably more justified in this work than in most others, particularly in bookkeeping, typewriting, and stenography. In junior business training, however, there seems to be altogether too little em-

phasis upon the training of good business habits in caring for one's personal finances. There is also little evidence that commercial training is used as an exploratory subject and yet it is hardly reasonable to expect that commercial training offered to pupils of this age can have much vocational significance.

## PRACTICAL ARTS

Woodworking or manual training is the most popular industrial-arts course. Mechanical drawing and electricity come next. The topics studied do not seem to vary much from grade to grade, thus indicating that there is no progression in this subject. The aims are varied but for the most part very much worth while. There is a tendency to stress the acquisition of skills but also a realization that the subjects have great possibilities from an exploratory standpoint.

Of the practical-arts courses for girls the most popular are cooking, sewing, and home management. Like industrial arts for boys there is little uniformity in topics over the State nor is there evidence of progression from grade to grade. The aims of teaching do not stress the formal, informational side but place considerable emphasis upon those phases which are practical and will meet the needs of the individual adolescent girl.

## CONCLUSIONS

This hasty and very sketchy summary of the findings of our study leads us probably to the realization that the older subjects in the curriculum have been slower to feel the newer emphases which are coming in our educational thinking and practice. Such subjects as English, mathematics, and ancient and modern languages are open to most serious criticism as failing to carry out the purpose of the junior high school and to meet the needs of the boys and girls of junior-high-school age. The newer subjects such as household arts, industrial arts,



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music, general language, general science, and civics have caught the spirit of our newer trends in education and, while not going so far as we might like to see, are nevertheless socializing their subject matter in ways which will be helpful to the boys and girls.

It may have seemed from the discussion up to this point that formal aims have been disparaged. This was not intended. Formal aims have their place. We need to have the subject presented in well-organized fashion and taught in such a way as to require work on the part of the pupils. The junior-high-school period is not one to be spent entirely in catering to the whims of pupils. However, formal aims seem to have taken altogether too prominent a place. They seem to have been emphasized to the neglect of many other valuable aims and it is doubtful if even the formal aims have been carried out satisfactorily in view of the lack of evidence of progressive subject-matter organization.

There are two or three points which need emphasis, not to the exclusion of others, but to a greater extent than seems evident at present. The first is the need for teaching each one of the junior-high-school subjects in such a way as to yield some exploratory values to the pupil. At this age the pupil is extending his interest and is on the threshold of many important decisions. He needs, not dogmatic advice, but as

broad a background for forming judgments as time and his ability can produce. The other important point is that courses should be constructed with a view to a better sequence than now exists. There is nothing so deadening in the lives of pupils as the repetition of the same old subject matter year after year for a period of sometimes five or six years. English is one of the worst offenders in this regard.

The junior high school offers an opportunity for meeting pupil needs superior to every other part of our school system. The teacher is not fully realizing the possibilities open to her unless she is willing constantly to revise and supplement her course with new and different materials which will meet better the needs of the pupils in her classes. She should be willing to make radical changes when thoroughly convinced that they are needed. She is freer from the domination of schools above than the teachers of the senior high school. She has less of traditionalism to combat than have the teachers of the senior high school. Thus, it appears that, if there is any one unit of our whole school system which should bear earmarks of progress, it is the junior high school and, furthermore, the evidence of this progress is going to be found in the content of the courses and in the aims of the teaching more emphatically than in the organization of the school or in any other phase of its life.

## TEACHERS' MEETINGS, NOT PRINCIPALS' MEETINGS

FORREST G. AVERILL

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Averill is principal of the senior high school at Fordson, Michigan. This high school is considered the finest high-school building in America. Mr. Averill is a brilliant man and a most successful principal.*

J. R.

If we as principals accept the theory that learning takes place only when interest is present on the part of the learner, we are forced to the conclusion that very little learning takes place in the ordinary teachers' meeting. Those of us who are not too far

away from the days when we attended such meetings as a teacher remember countless times when we were frankly bored by them and left with the feeling that we had wasted the time we had spent there. In any discussion group in which principals are

present, one question is invariably raised: "What can I do to make my faculty meetings better?" The frequency of this question and the insistence on its answer is a real challenge to every principal.

We hear much nowadays about pupil participation, and all of the more forward-looking and progressive educators feel that we cannot have the best progress without it. If pupil participation is important in the ordinary classroom learning situation, in developing initiative, self-reliance, personality, and all the other qualities which go to make a well-rounded individual, how much more important is it that we inject the factor into our teachers' meetings. Too often teachers are expected only to sit passively in these meetings, their sole duty being to "gather the pearls of wisdom as they drop from the lips of the principal." Some principals use the time of the meeting in making routine announcements which can be made just as well at a considerable saving of time in a bulletin. I have been present on certain occasions when the principal proceeded to "lecture" the whole group on practices which he considered undesirable, in order to correct this evil in one teacher. Probably all of us have been guilty of this on occasion. It seems evident that principals who continue practices of this sort in their meetings cannot expect teachers to become interested enough to participate in them, or to be greatly stimulated.

#### AN INNOVATION

Realizing the failure of my teachers' meetings to measure up to my ideal for them, I have attempted during this last year to make them more in keeping with it. With this in mind I organized them according to the following rules which I heartily recommend to any of my fellow principals.

1. Meetings should be limited to one hour in length.
2. Not over ten minutes should be allowed for routine, preferably at the be-

ginning of the hour, topics should be listed on mimeographed sheets and given to each teacher to be kept for future reference.

3. Meetings should be held not oftener than once every two weeks at a regular time.
4. The principal should not indulge in grumbling or scolding. Let him do his scolding individually and in private.
5. The topics presented should be of interest to all teachers.
6. Ample time allowance should be given for the expression of opinion and discussion by the faculty with adequate provision for curbing the flow of rhetoric from the more verbose members of the staff.
7. Whenever possible the principal should remain in the background.

After setting up the mechanics of the series of meetings I had planned, the next step was to convince the teachers that the plan was a good one and that I was really sincere in my attempt to make our meetings more interesting and to encourage more "teacher participation." This was not difficult of accomplishment. A request on my part for a serious consideration of an aim which was broad enough to extend over a rather long period of time and of sufficient value to warrant considerable study met with an enthusiastic response. In our case we discussed several problems at the first meeting of the school year, and, as a result of our discussion, we took as the theme of our meetings, "Improvement of Instruction." At this meeting the teachers also appointed in a truly democratic manner a committee to work with me in arranging the details of our meetings.

The first duty of the committee was to break up the large problem chosen into units small enough to be considered in one meeting or at most in two meetings. With the help of the reference librarian on the staff

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of our high-school library, we presented at the second teachers' meeting of the year a list of seventeen lesser problems, all a part of the main one. I have listed below the subheads which we suggested.

### TOPICS FOR STUDY

1. Motivating learning
2. Aids in good drill procedure
3. The art of skillful questioning to stimulate thought
4. Teaching pupils to read efficiently
5. Importance of expressing knowledge as a part of the complete learning process
6. Development of right ideals and attitudes
7. Classroom management
8. Adapting instruction to individual differences
9. Teaching pupils how to study
10. The project method
11. Measuring achievement
  - a) Construction of better examinations
  - b) Making intelligent use of standardized tests
12. The lesson plan
13. The course of study
14. Coördination of departments
15. Technique of judging textbooks
16. Demonstration lessons
17. Discussion of teacher rating

### A CHECK SHEET USED

It was evident that if we expected to get the teachers to participate in our meetings, we must first find out those phases of the problem which were of most interest to them. This we did by arranging the problems in a check sheet to be filled out by teachers, on which they were to number the problems in the order of their interest to them personally. The results showed that several of the problems were of almost universal interest, but the replies showed enough variation to assign each teacher on

a committee to take charge of one of the meetings at which the topic for discussion was either her first, second, or third choice.

After a committee of teachers was appointed for each meeting to discuss one of the topics, the next problem was to give them something concrete with which to work. This we did, again with the help of our reference librarian. We examined the field of educational literature relating to each topic and selected a few very pertinent references. These were analyzed and an outline prepared for the members of the committee in charge of each meeting. Three teachers were to be put in charge of each meeting, the chairman was to open the meeting and introduce the topic for discussion.

He would then call on one of the others who would present one phase of the problem. This would be followed by ten minutes of discussion. At the expiration of the discussion period, the other member of the committee was to present another phase of the problem. This was to be followed by a final ten minutes of discussion directed by the chairman. Usually one of the references on the list prepared previously was chosen for special consideration and the speakers presented the author's point of view as a starting point for discussion. Below is given a sample of the plan for a meeting as presented by the members of the committee in charge of one of the meetings.

### *Measuring Pupil Achievements*

Chairman, Miss \_\_\_\_\_

I. "Introduction" (special reference)  
Monroe, Walter S., *Directing Learning in the High School*, pages 492-500.

Discussion (10 minutes)

II. Mr. \_\_\_\_\_ "Improvement of Written Examinations of the Essay Type" (special reference) Monroe, pages 507-514 (10 minutes)

III. Mr. \_\_\_\_\_ "Constructing and administering a New Type Examina-

tion" (special reference) Monroe, pages 514-521 (10 minutes)

#### General references

Other references may be found under number 5 on the Reference Sheet in the Teachers' Reference Room in the library.

The above outline helped the teachers in charge of the meeting to stay on the subject and acted as a guide in the discussions. I

feel confident that every teacher on the staff secured some valuable "training in service" as an outgrowth of these meetings. They were very popular with the teachers, and I could not go back to the old plan if I wished without serious objection. I only hope that this article will be suggestive to others who are confronted with the eternal problem of making their teachers' meetings contribute to the welfare of their school.

### THE "DUGOUT"

CAROLINE MOLLE

EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss Caroline Molle during her sixteen years of teaching in the New York City elementary schools has been interested in children of low intelligence. Her master of arts thesis was entitled: "Problem Children—Their Behavior Difficulties in Relation to the Mental States and their Health Habits at School and Home." P. W. L. C.

"'Tis life whereof our nerves are scant;

More life and fuller, that I want."

This quotation seemed to express the unspoken cry of the motley group who passed over the threshold into Room 309, Public School—surreptitiously labeled by convention, Discipline Class—Sixth Year. Into the room streamed labeled failures of all kinds, ranging from eleven to sixteen years of age.

The register was 40, the attendance was 32. Some of these pupils appeared in their new room to their new teacher in meek or sullen or brazen or perhaps indifferent attitudes. Some had courage enough to remain away where they found matters of greater interest to them.

From the age of six, most of these thwarted individuals had tried to live as the school had demanded. They had done their share, for better or worse, mostly worse. They had sufficient reasons to know they were not liked, on the whole, as were other children.

Stanley, overgrown, mentally below normal; Louis, tall, dark-skinned, impudent; Tony, a "sheik" as modernly portrayed; Michael, sullen, having been defeated in his efforts to strike a teacher; Teresa, tall, blonde, and impudent; then, Tini, dark-

skinned, vivacious, dreaming adolescent dreams; these and all others were wishing the "sitting-still" day were over. Yet, it was only half past nine.

Looking over the rollbook, it was natural for the teacher to ask, "Where are the rest of our friends?" It was as natural for them to live up to their natural code and say nothing. Even in this discouraged, adolescent group, there was a code.

9.30 A. M. Traditional School Program—Arithmetic, followed by Geography, History, etc. Attitudes of pupils—expectation of just that—and a chance to do something not desired by a traditional school. Attitude of teacher—sympathetic and understanding.

"Instead of arithmetic, let's go to the gymnasium and decide upon our basketball teams." The surprise rather stunned the audience. After the teams were decided upon, the teacher casually remarked to the class, "What will we do about the absentees?" Unconsciously, they remarked, "We'll get 'em this noon, they're down in the lots."

In the afternoon, perfect attendance. It was disclosed that the missing pupils had been in the lots building a "dugout." They knew many places, as did the proba-



## THE "DUGOUT"

tionary officers, police officers, and residents, in the outskirts where they could "gang together" to defy or hide from conventional duties.

However, it was agreed that the teacher knew a better place than their chosen place for a "dugout." There was a fine corner upon the school roof, very seldom used. So, in the afternoon, all gathered on the roof—some skeptically, some sullenly. But anything was better than sitting in those small seats and "doing verbs, tests."

After much discussion, Stanley was chosen to make arrangements for a "dugout" on the roof. The boys, that afternoon, found a camping tent for the girls to use as a "Red Cross" hut. The boys wished theirs to be of mud, dirt, and sticks. So bags of sand, clay, water were carted to the roof. Some of the boys decided they were too big for that game and, diplomatically, it was left to the teacher to suggest that they drill their soldiers. A captain, a lieutenant, a corporal came forth. The Red Cross unit started Junior Red Cross work, learning first aid. The "dugout," when finished, was the soldiers' headquarters.

After a day or two, all of this new activity was taking place after three o'clock. It was necessary to comply with the school rules. One order was "military marching." A great deal of the troubles of the pupils in other grades had been caused by the fact that they did not comply with this rule. Military marching now had become part of play.

The girls, meanwhile, wanted uniforms. The sewing course of study required cooking caps and aprons. Why not also make an extra cap and apron at home and after school? Sewing became part of living, a purposeful activity.

A Red Cross Drive. Who was better fitted for it than the "Dugouts"? The school needed them and they were proud of it.

Meanwhile, what was happening to the classwork? All agreed fully that it was necessary for ratings and promotions. The attitude towards school subjects was just what it should not have been, in most instances. The attitude had to be changed, by changing the usual class procedure. In order to explain the class procedure it may be necessary to explain that at this particular time there was a shortage of homes in the district. The overcrowded city was shifting its population to the outskirts.

Often one notices our young men taking down the engine and body of the useful "flivver" and dressing it up as a "sport roadster." Applying the same principle, we dressed up the classwork under the important title, "Own Your Own Home."

It was necessary for the "Dugouts" to find out their family incomes, as far as possible. Here they were forming a connection between real living and school life. Spending and saving budgets were made. Some decided to buy a lot and build a house. Others decided to buy their homes already built. Into the disguised arithmetic lesson crept the teaching of acreage, buying of lumber at so much per thousand, buying of paint by gallons, paving of sidewalks, making and receipting of bills and so forth. Our term plan in arithmetic was well covered.

The question arose of road paving, lighting, transportation. Civics became part of life. Letters had to be written to real-estate dealers and others. English was part of life. In furnishing the home, landscaping, nature, drawing, art were studied. Meanwhile, the pupils noticed their own home conditions, school grounds, neighborhood, and began to remedy the conditions as far as lay in their power.

Work had become vitalized. However, the question may arise, "Where is the so-called discipline class?" Using the term, *discipline*, as so often used, there was an opportunity for plenty of it. Situations of

vulgarity, obscenity, and insubordination often loomed forth. But the disciplining was given by the teacher to herself. When these cases arose, it behooved her to think quickly, actively, and find wherein she had failed, wherein the activity was not vitalized nor purposeful enough.

The question may arise, "Was any plan of work followed?" The plan of work, disguised in any fashion, had to be similar to that of other classes. Tests were given throughout the school each Friday on work covered. It was agreed by all interested that failure had become a habit in this group. It was decided to prepare the pupils in advance for their weekly test, telling them as nearly as possible, the questions the tests would cover. They, to their surprise, began to succeed. It was worth while. They now felt that they could do as other children did. An attitude of success had had to be built to offset the habit of failure.

It is impossible to describe the "Dug-out" as a pedagogue would. It was just a gang. Perhaps, the teacher is a person of importance, but it did not seem advisable at this time to try to *force* grown-up, materialistic views into the growing minds of adolescents. They needed friends, guides, leaders, who were filled with understanding and sympathy, and who had under all a deep faith in education, its theories, philosophies, and practices.

What is education? "All education is practice in responding to situations and experiences. These experiences are set up by the school organizations to content and method of the curriculum and by the personal relationship of the teacher and the pupil."<sup>1</sup> In this situation, the experiences were not set up by the school organization. It was necessary to supply the missing links. Why trouble to supply the missing links? Because, the aim of education should be to "reënforce, guide, and direct the activi-

ties of pupils to do better those desirable things they will do anyway and to make them worthy citizens."<sup>2</sup> In school, we have the assembling of many small groups of pupils who will soon be the foundations of society. These pupils may be like-minded or antagonistic, friendly or hostile, yet their contact is certain to set in operation a series of emotions by which they will influence each other. Out of association will arise dominance, submission, leadership, followership, fixed custom. All of the forces will make for social control. Thus, the home and the school must be relied upon to establish standards of behavior which will lead out into larger social relations in life.

In former days, in autocratic societies, the masses were held in leash. Nowadays, authority is vested in the people. Social welfare is no longer dependent upon the few. Public feeling is an important power. It is changed into public opinion by discussions in group organizations. Naturally, conflict has arisen between the individual and society. If the individual is allowed full sway, there might be chaos. A workable balance must be maintained between the autocratic and the democratic ideas. The public, in supporting the schools, is interested in the individual, for his own sake and for the groups' sake. It wishes the schools to prepare the pupils for taking a constructive part in society. The building up of a wholesome school spirit and good habits of living are as significant as good instruction. The school should train pupils to accept reasonable social restraints and adapt themselves to living with others in harmony.

It can thus be seen that discipline is necessary, for "it is a part of all human association, and in modern society is called social control. School discipline is social control within the school group."<sup>3</sup> In essence it is school spirit. In the "Dugout"

<sup>1</sup> P. W. L. Cox, *Curriculum-Adjustment in the Secondary Schools* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1925).

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 161.

<sup>3</sup> Walter Robinson Smith, *Constructive School Discipline* (New York: American Book Company, 1924), p. 30.

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pupil contact, and the working with an understanding of the purpose of all, a pressure was exerted into their lives so definitely that their behavior was influenced. This was discipline. Even discipline here had its aspects. Specific corrections, rebukes, and punishments were at times inevitable, just as in society where there are restrictions and prisons. However, in school, the group was an intimate group and forcible treatments were reduced to a minimum. When these rebukes were used, they were used with an educative purpose. Often the children disciplined each other, because the social pressure of pupil feeling and opinion demanded a curbing of gang excesses.

The discipline as applied to the "Dugout" was constructive rather than negative. There was little value in curbing bad conduct without supplying something to take its place. The school "Dugout" became of more interest than the corner poolroom or alley.

The discipline class consisted of a group of individuals. Spencer says, "Society is made up of individuals, all that is done in society is done by the combined actions of individuals."<sup>4</sup> In the class the pupils were treated as individuals, trained to think alone and work alone, but also trained to live and work with others. It was necessary to comply with school regulations. Even, in spite of all, Michael received credit and honor for putting an engine together, although he knew little of verbs and nouns, and Stanley received credit because he traced the history of the airplane from Darius Green to Lindbergh. Stanley, who had never willingly read a schoolbook, was searching the libraries for airplane information. Is it beyond the point to say that Stanley is working at an air field and Michael is learning to be an automobile mechanic?

"The remoter aims of discipline are concerned with the training of pupils for

proper conduct in later life."<sup>5</sup> The stimulus, effort, knowledge gained by these boys carried over into society and is functioning in useful junior citizenship. Tini is caring for little tots, while mothers are working; others are helping at home. The immediate aim of the "Dugout" was to develop self-control and self-direction under school conditions. In school, individually, they tried to learn self-control; from the social standpoint, they tried to adjust themselves to their associates and to cooperate in school assemblies, drills, and other enterprises.

The discipline class was one in which outlets were supplied for the emotions of these adolescents. They made their mistakes, even as great as being arrested one night while on an automobile escapade. But they came to the school for assistance and received it. They knew the school was their friend. They began to realize that, to keep out of mischief, it was necessary to be busy. It was learned that in order to "prevent rather than cure," it was necessary to arrange a program so full of active, vital, effective activity that like interests, enthusiasms, and voluntary memberships in social situations left no room for mischief making. An effort was made to appeal to the highest motives within the understanding of all, avoiding direct commands as often as possible and approaching all situations tactfully.

Thorndike<sup>6</sup> names the three major laws of learning—readiness, exercise, and effect. It seemed in the disciplinary class that, if education consists of changes, the changes that had taken place in the past years in these pupils had produced unsatisfactory effects. The "mind-set" was in need of readjustment. The class was surely not in need of repeated exercises in failing, disturbing. They were in "readiness" for the "Dugout." The changes in class procedure resulted in satisfaction, as seen in

<sup>4</sup> Walter Robinson Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 47.

<sup>5</sup> Herbert Spencer, *Education* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1890), p. 58.

<sup>6</sup> E. L. Thorndike, *Educational Psychology, Brief Course*, Teachers College, 1920.



the test results. Gradually these changes, new exercises, were found more satisfactory than the old. They discovered for themselves that desirable connections produce comfort, undesirable connections discomfort. They were ready to accept new conditions and become one with society. Dewey says, "the child ought to have a positive consciousness of what he is about. Only in this way has he a vital standard, one that enables him to turn failures to account for the future. In training the child, we must give him such possession of himself that he may take charge of himself."<sup>7</sup> Cox says, "each pupil should be encouraged to develop his special abilities and aptitudes in order to attain the richest life for himself, and later contribute most to the welfare of the community."<sup>8</sup>

Was not this problem solved to a certain extent when the pupils in the disciplinary class were treated as beings with a right to think individually, to grow naturally, to live naturally, in as far as it did not interfere with social regulations? Is there any reason why in order to learn they must listen to texts, sermons, advice—and listen dutifully? Oliver Wendell Holmes in *Elsie Venner* states that, "it is very singular that we recognize all bodily defects that unfit a man for military service, but always talk at him as if all his moral powers were perfect."<sup>9</sup>

Again, "learning-situations should correspond to life-situations."<sup>10</sup> Is there any reason why disciplinary questions should not be treated on the same basis as subject matter? Can we not change situations in discipline classes so that they become "life situations"?

Why have we discipline classes? Is it not an admission that there is a misunderstanding somewhere in the school life?

Many of the discipline cases are the results of habitual truancy. Wood and field with their splendor, the populous streets, the flowery meadows, the brooks are the natural elements of the child, not the bare, gray school walls. Many times had the members of this discipline class found it almost impossible to offset desires of nature.

Is it not hard for our boys kept in school by compulsory school laws, to remain obedient, meek pupils when all they are doing is "marking time"? Our schools have remained a retreat for scholars; we have shut them from the factories; we have issued orders "Attend School," but have made few changes to fit the situation. Except in as far as school situations are set up to allow them to live full, self-satisfying, active lives, except in as far as we allow them emotional outlets, except in as far as we provide extra-curricular activities, will there be a change in conditions. The "Dugout" tried in its simple way to offset the weaknesses of the classroom.

In the "Dugout," although the class consisted of individuals, it was the sum of forty individuals plus a certain atmosphere that comes from a crowd. If there is a crowd, there is a certain telepathy established between them. A punishment shared becomes less a punishment. They had learned that in past experiences. Ideals of conduct for the individual must be studied and understood so that they become the ideals of conduct for the crowd. Many of the school regulations necessitated by the regular work of a class or school do not apply to an individual as an individual. The teacher must apply the psychology of the crowd. She must understand the contagion of the crowd. In this particular case, there was no question about this crowd being a gang. They were a gang on the outside; they had shared troubles, enjoyments, together. Angelo was present, after his retreat in a probationary school, and sat near four or five of his friends whom he

<sup>7</sup> John Dewey, *Moral Principles of Education* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909), p. 51.

<sup>8</sup> P. W. L. Cox, *op. cit.*, p. 135.

<sup>9</sup> Oliver Wendell Holmes, *Elsie Venner* (New York: A. L. Burt Company, 1861), p. 186.

<sup>10</sup> P. W. L. Cox, *op. cit.*, p. 179.

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had recently implicated in his automobile theft. The gang had its code, for better or worse. It is the task of the teacher to change this gang into a class. It is necessary to hold to the good traits of the gang. The gang spirit must be changed tactfully to that subtle thing, called "class spirit." She must set her stage adroitly to give the pupils cues for their actions. To build this "class spirit" we move carefully, skillfully, little by little, remembering that the soul of a class is a precious spirit. Again, gangs and classes have their leaders. Stanley, Michael, Tony were persons of esteem in this "Dugout." They dared more than others. In the discipline class, this venturesome spirit was valuable, in enabling them to use their energies for the social control. "A genuine school spirit is not a matter of noise and surface demonstration but of sacrificial interest in the welfare of the social group."<sup>11</sup>

In the "Dugout" all was not easy maneuvering. There were low, depressed moments. If a graph of our progress had been made, the lines would have risen and dropped, risen and dropped, always gaining a little at a time. These pupils were not unusual, nor had they become ideal. At times, it was necessary to aid them, spur them on with special incentives. School life must be made to seem worth while in itself. Distant goals of future citizenship must be drawn closer. When native interest on the part of certain children could not be aroused, it was necessary to devise a system of artificial rewards. We recognize and reward certain acts in social life. Why not in school life, provided we offer only the sort of rewards that are wholesome and constructive? We may reward by praising judiciously. In the "Dugout" we compared the results with the other classes. Banners were given for excellence in attendance, subject matter. An appeal was made to the legitimate ambition, care-

fully guarded, to excel and improve the ability to accomplish desirable things.

In colleges, we have the Phi Beta Kappa, organizations, contests. In the "Dugout," the greatest honor was to wear the insignia, "Be Square." If complaints were made against the class, if it were proved that a pupil was not living up to his code, the leaders, under the teacher's guidance, held a council to decide the removing of this insignia.

Is the teacher's rôle of any importance in a discipline class? In as far as she guides, leads, and reinforces the activities of the pupils, she is of great value. As a dictator, a tyrant, she has dropped years behind the times. It seems that the teacher must have common sense, a clear head, and lively sense of humor. Her sympathy must be a fellow understanding—an ability to put one's self into the place of the other. Maeterlinck, in *The Treasure of the Humble*, remarks, "Be good at the depths of you, and you will discover that those who surround you will be good even to the same depths."<sup>12</sup> "Intellectual strength and heart strength must be merged with corresponding will strength."<sup>13</sup>

"The world steps aside to let the man pass who knows where he is going."<sup>14</sup> Therefore, to allow a pupil to dawdle before beginning his work—time to get into mischief—means that proper motivation is lacking. In the "Dugout," the greatest trouble was not to arouse an interest, but to curb too exciting a discussion. Motivation was easy because they had a counterpart in out-of-school situations.

However, in a discipline class, such as the "Dugout," the teacher may plan, according to rules of pedagogy, and find that she is at a loss. Educational theories are good as suggestions, not as prescriptions. The exact procedure taken by the teacher

<sup>11</sup> Maurice Maeterlinck, *The Treasure of the Humble*.

<sup>12</sup> Arthur C. Perry, *Discipline as a School Problem* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1915), p. 157.

<sup>13</sup> David Starr Jordan, *Heredity of Richard Roe* (Boston: American Unitarian Society, 1911), p. 119.

<sup>14</sup> Walter Robinson Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 108.

cannot be reduced to rules. The pupils, as individuals, and as a class, are live, active beings with attitudes which we are trying to lead into habits of good living through wholesome, vital classroom activities and extracurricular activities. "The varieties of individuality are so great that psychology and child study cannot tell teachers what they would most like to know—how to deal with individual pupils."<sup>15</sup> To quote an individual case, Edmund, part Negro, part white, aged fifteen, swaggered into the class one day, having been found a nuisance in several previous schools. He was firmly requested to step outside for a moment. He was asked a little of his past history. Without much ado, he stated that he had a violent temper, and that, when angry, he always tried to stab some one. It was discovered that his father was serving a sentence, mother working, and Edmund was the "bully" of the streets. His self-esteem was overdeveloped and in the wrong channels. It is said that, "Pupils should be prepared to do better those desirable things that they will perform anyway."<sup>16</sup> Since stabbing and egotism were *not desirable things*, it was necessary to find something *desirable* as a substitute. He was on the street, anyway, so he was given the position of chief patrol. He swaggered around a day or two, when he was invited to meet the boys in the "Dugout." It did not take them long to explain that "he was to get off his perch" as they expressed it. If he did, he would be allowed to wear the "Be Square" insignia. It did not take more than two months before he was one of the most necessary members of the class. He was bound to lead, and he was taught to lead in satisfactory channels. In his case, this braggadocio was an assertion of his individuality. Sex maturing was holding a dominant part. By giving him opportunities for normal self-ex-

pression, a rich life of physical and intellectual activity, ignoring the negative aspects of discipline, he was guided forward during this period of adolescence. The fact that he could be himself, as he was, even in school, made him a loyal member of the society.

There were times when the class was led through the usual drillwork. It is necessary to lay the foundations for future work, even in a discipline class. To make this routine work as pleasant as possible, consideration must be paid to the condition of the room. "When carbonic acid gas is present in the room to the extent of six parts to ten thousand of pure air, organic matter enough to poison the air is present. The effect on the children is drowsiness, stupidity, and fatigue."<sup>17</sup> There is no question that, in order to direct or lead pupils through purposeful studies, lead them to good health, it is necessary to have strengthening air. Also, how may we expect cleanliness, if the room is not as inviting as possible? All children have some appreciation of the beautiful and many of them have little opportunity to exercise it. Potted plants, pictures, decorative designs are not only a means of aesthetic education, but also aids in pupil control. Also, comfort, orderliness, and good cheer are effective and tend to make the pupils happy. In *The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets*, Miss Addams, in speaking of the "period of groping" says, "the newly awakened senses are appealed to by all that is gaudy and sensual, by the flippant street music, the highly colored theater posters, the trashy love stories."<sup>18</sup> Because of this call of nature, Tony, the "sheik," appointed his committee to take charge of the room decorations, the assembly decorations. Since his special desire during adolescence was to enter the "movies" he was called upon

<sup>15</sup> E. A. Kirkpatrick, *Fundamentals of Child Study* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1903), p. 315.

<sup>16</sup> P. W. L. Cox, *op. cit.*, p. 162.

<sup>17</sup> Stuart H. Rowe, *The Physical Nature of the Child* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1899), p. 151.

<sup>18</sup> Jane Addams, *The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1909), p. 27.



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to train for his possible future life by taking an active part in arranging beautifying effects in the school. Even when in "learning to do by doing," the effects were too gaudy, too noisy, he found a safe emotional outlet for his love of color.

Perhaps, the criticism will arise that there was no organized pupil government in this disciplinary class. There was no formal organization, for several reasons. Partly, because in this particular school, this mode of procedure was new to the pupils. No individual is fitted for large responsibilities until he has been trained for it by the exercise of small responsibilities. The pupils were not quite ready for complete government. They had been trained to accept dictation in matters of conduct from school authorities. That they had not accepted this dictation was self-evident. However,

there was danger of abuse in the transfer of power to them unless they had been carefully educated up to the point of willingness to accept the responsibility it entails.

In the "Dugout," it seemed that a sense of individual and group moral responsibility was being instilled, that the qualities of initiative, judgment, and leadership were being developed, that school spirit was being cultivated.

This class upon entering had had attitudes and ideals already in formation. Did the education through constructive discipline change or educate the pupils? The sociological objectives might be classed rather crudely as: (1) health efficiency, (2) domestic efficiency, (3) vocational efficiency, (4) civic efficiency, (5) religious efficiency, (6) recreational efficiency. Were these objectives reached?

## THE TEACHER AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

O. MYKING MEHUS

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Professor Mehus is in the department of sociology and teacher training in the Northwest Missouri State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri. His article originally had appended a lengthy bibliography on world peace, race relations, prohibition and temperance, juvenile delinquency and crime, child welfare, labor problems, wholesome motion pictures, protection of birds and animals, Boy and Girl Scouts, health and hygiene, and geography. Available space does not permit publishing the bibliography, but a copy will be sent on request.*

F. E. L.

There is a growing realization on the part of leading educators that our schools must prepare students more effectually to face the vital issues of modern living. Our schools in the past have been too far removed from everyday life. We, as teachers, have lived in a world apart from the stern realities of life. We seemingly have been teaching with the false notion that if we "train the mind" the child will be able to adjust himself to the real world when he gets his diploma. We have been doing this in spite of the fact that modern psychology has proved conclusively the unsoundness of the old doctrine of formal discipline and the transfer of training.

If we hope to develop boys and girls who can take an intelligent part in helping to

solve the complex problems of our modern life, we must acquaint them with these problems in the schoolroom. This thought is well expressed by Kilpatrick of Columbia University in his book, *Education for a Changing Civilization*, in which he says (pages 77-78):

"If our pupils are to grow into an adequate citizenship, they must with increasing age and with due regard to their growing outlook and interest become increasingly familiar with the problems of civilization. A proper study of 'frontier' thinkers should give us the necessary knowledge of the more important social problems likely in some form or other to confront the rising generation. That many of these problems will be controversial will, if they are

handled wisely, but enhance their educative value. The effort is not to hand out solutions, but to develop methods of attack, to develop an intelligent appreciation of the problems themselves as well as an intelligent appreciation of facts pertinent to their solution. That the secondary school and college should greatly increase their work along this line is as necessary as it is probable."

This same attitude is taken in the Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (page 21), where it states: "One of the chief intellectual purposes of the school is to develop understanding of the institutions, problems, and issues of contemporary life." In other words, we cannot be satisfied by merely teaching the events of the past ages—we must stress modern social problems and stimulate our students so they will face these problems with a clear vision and unprejudiced mind.

Following this same line of thought, J. W. Crabtree, secretary of the National Education Association, declares in the N. E. A. *Research Bulletin* for September, 1929: "A school which merely meets the demands of yesterday or even of today is not enough in as rapidly a changing civilization as that in which we are living. An analysis of the economic, social, and industrial changes which are now in process suggests that the public-school curriculum must be built for a new world, if it is to function in the lives of the children today and tomorrow."

Not only must our pupils become conversant with the questions facing our country, but world problems must be discussed. We cannot live apart from the rest of the world, for we are all members of one large family and we must learn to live together harmoniously. The foundation for this state of mind must be laid in our public schools. This concept was well expressed by Dean Henry Lester Smith of Indiana University before the Section on International Coöperation of the Geneva World Conference on Education when he said:

"An important task before the world today is the creation of a new state of mind, a state of mind which will permit an understanding and appreciation of the character, attainments, and traditions of other people and which will transcend national boundaries without seeking to destroy them. Internationalism, properly interpreted, implies an extended conception of citizenship rather than a supergovernment with its consequent minimizing of national importance. Racial and national prejudice probably have their origin in part deep down in the early life of the individual, and can therefore to some extent be avoided or mitigated by a program of guidance which begins early and continues throughout the formative period of the individual. It is not impossible for the schools of the nations, working with such agencies as the church, the press, the home, and governmental institutions, to go far towards producing a friendly world if they will do so."

## ACROSS THE MILES

SALLY FREEMAN DAWES

EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss Dawes is head of the English department in the Senior High School of Quincy, Massachusetts. For seven years she was on the Executive Council of the New England Association of Teachers of English and for one year was its president. During the year 1928-29 she was an exchange teacher and taught in England. This article is a brief exposition of some of the points which impressed her regarding the schools of England. L. W. R.

As an artist likes to view his work from a distance; as an actor likes, in rehearsal, to watch an understudy in his part; as a musician likes to hear himself in reproduc-

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tion, so a teacher should study herself and her work, should view them both at arm's length, so to speak. Some teachers have heard themselves and their classes through the medium of stenographic reports; some have watched themselves in action in the person of a student teacher; others have viewed their work through the clear medium of a foreign or interstate exchange. I know of no better way to become acquainted with the strengths and weaknesses of one's regular work or the advantages and disadvantages of a local school system. It was my good fortune last year to enjoy an "exchange" year in an English (municipal) secondary school for girls where, though I was not able to learn all I wanted to about the teaching of English in England, I made so many other valuable contacts that this deficiency has met some measure of compensation.

Because the English educational vocabulary is so different from the American, I exceeded Professor Palmer's advice to learn two new words a week. It seems incredible that two nations speaking the same language and interested in the same things should use that language in such different ways. A school termed "public" in England, like Eton or Harrow, is "private" in America; a public school in the American sense is, in England, a municipal, a county council, or a board school, according to the authority under which it exists. The term "private school" in England denotes, I am told, a school conducted solely for the financial benefit of the owner; such schools exist without Government supervision. A co-educational school in America becomes a "mixed" school in England; but mixed secondary schools are not numerous, for English educational authorities believe in segregating the sexes when they reach secondary-school age—at ten to twelve years. The student's daily program is known as a "timetable"; in addition to this he has a "homework timetable," indicating what les-

sons are to be prepared each night and how much time is to be devoted to each. This homework timetable is the coöperative effort of the teachers of a given form. Examinations, which play so large a part in the school life of English boys and girls, are not "proctored"; they are "invigilated."

Entrance into an English secondary school is gained by examination, but all pupils who pass the examination do not "accept places" in the school. To accept a place means to sign a contract to remain in the school until the end of the term in which the pupil reaches his sixteenth birthday. A pupil may leave school at any time after the end of the term just mentioned; there is no graduation with a diploma to encourage his remaining. Students preparing for the universities do, of course, remain. It is this contract, as well as the fact that the legal school-leaving age is fourteen years, that deters many middle-class English children from receiving secondary-school education. The fees required in many schools are an added deterrent. Until the past year children who did not enter secondary schools remained in the upper "standards" (grades) of the elementary school until they were fourteen. With the recent acceptance of the Hadow Report these children are to be cared for in the "modern" schools, comparable to a junior high school with a marked tendency towards vocational training.

The pupil timetable offers a real surprise to the exchange teacher, for the English pupil in the lower and middle forms of the secondary school normally carries from twelve to fourteen subjects. Though formidable enough, it is not so formidable as it seems, for the number of lessons per week in each subject, with the exception of English, ranges from one to three. Such an array of subject matter appealed to me as mentally dissipating. This I found to be especially true when I tried to follow the directions for teaching literature: of the



six lessons in English per week two were to be devoted to literature, the book was to be read aloud in the classroom, and the entire book to be studied in twenty lessons. The book was *Ivanhoe*. Again, the pupil timetable offers a surprise to the American teacher accustomed to study periods or supervised study for pupils; every minute of the English timetable is filled. From the American point of view the child is not taught to plan his work, to budget his time in school, or to assume any responsibility for himself; he has no time in school to follow lines of his own study interest. A year in an English school makes the American teacher very sympathetic with the plaint voiced in *The Constant Nymph* that the child had to live "by something called a timetable which kept her going from morning to night with no time for transit."

England deprecates standardization, yet she standardizes education and the children who aspire to it. There is very little flexibility in the course of study until the upper forms are reached; the student must be made to fit the course, not the course to fit the child. And the children, especially the girls, are standardized by the uniforms they are required to wear. Though the color of the uniform differs according to the artistic taste of the authorities, the style is much the same wherever one goes. I think I prefer American flexibility and individuality.

I wish every American teacher might have the advantage of an exchange year. Difficult as it is at times, it has its rewards in the end. Personally I know I am now far better fitted to interpret English literature and life than I would have been after several years of study of the subject or several summer tours to England.

## THE CITIZENSHIP ASPECT OF THE DETROIT CARDINAL-OBJECTIVES EXAMINATION

E. C. THOMPSON

EDITOR'S NOTE: E. C. Thompson is a teacher in Southeastern High School, Detroit, Michigan. He is a leader in social-science work, not only in the city of Detroit, but in school circles throughout Michigan. C. O. D.

In 1918, as you will all recall, the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, which had been appointed by the National Education Association, published its report. In this report the Committee laid down the seven now well-known principles or objectives; namely, health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, civic education, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character.

In Detroit in the early part of 1927, the question arose as to whether after about ten years of apparent adherence by the high schools to these ideals, the ideals themselves were in any degree being approximated in the actual conduct of the schools. To study this question a committee was appointed with its membership picked from the high

schools of the city under the chairmanship of Dr. Paul T. Rankin, supervising director of research. This committee worked upon the problem for two years. By the close of the second year, a test had been prepared, the Detroit Cardinal Objectives Examination, which, it was hoped, might throw some light on the problem. The examination was given to the high-school pupils of all grades and to the ninth-grade pupils in the intermediate schools on January 2 and 3, this year. On the 6th, the pupils discussed the examination in their classes.

### WORKING OUT THE TEST

The problem which the committee faced in making out the examination was that of preparing a kind of examination which had

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not, at least to the committee's knowledge, been prepared at any time in the past. There were no models to follow. It resulted naturally, then, that the committee spent the first year largely in a survey of the situation and in the working out of a general method of procedure. Some time was spent on a study of character education which Hartshorne and May had prepared for the Religious Education Association.

It was decided at the start that the committee would omit from consideration one of the objectives, the control of fundamental processes, as that objective was pretty thoroughly covered by tests already in existence. The rest of the objectives were divided up among the committee, each member taking two of them as his field for special study. All questions submitted in any field were, however, criticized by the group as a whole, and where objection to a question arose, that question was dropped. The great majority of the questions submitted were tried out in some of the schools before being discussed. Questions which did not work out well when tried in class also were dropped. A great many questions were thus discarded by the committee.

## MAKE-UP OF THE TEST

The purpose of this paper is to treat the examination from the citizenship or social-science point of view. For that reason, the emphasis will be placed on four divisions. First, there is citizenship itself. Closely related to citizenship, and in fact the foundation of good citizenship, is ethical character, which is, therefore, naturally included. The subject of vocations is again one of the main problems of a citizen. In Detroit a course in vocational information has been placed in the department of social science. For these reasons the questions on vocations will be considered. The problem of what to do with leisure time is one of the problems of the day, especially in the crowded cities. It has seemed fitting to include this also then in the

discussion of the test. Although an argument might be made for the other two divisions, nevertheless worthy home membership and health have been omitted as not being so directly in our field.

I might here emphasize the fact that this test was not intended as an intelligence test, as we ordinarily use the term. Through some misapprehension, in discussion of the test after it had been given in the schools, the Cardinal Objectives Examination was often referred to as an intelligence test. It was not intended as an intelligence test any more than any other examination, which might, incidentally, be a test of intelligence. It was more in the nature of an achievement test in the fields chosen. The examination itself, now in your hands, consists of two folders or parts consisting of four pages each.

## GENERAL PLAN OF THE EXAMINATION

In considering the type of questions to be asked in any field, it was decided that some of the exercises should consist of questions as to knowledge, or those calling for information such as question No. 8 in the citizenship list, for instance, which calls for the name of the Chief Justice of the United States in 1929. Another type of question was that calling for the exercise of judgment in a civic situation. Exercise No. 19 is an example—the question reads, "You wish to become an ideal adult citizen. Which would be most important for you to do as a good citizen?" Four choices are then listed, from which an answer is to be marked. Choice No. 3, "Work to improve the community, the State, and the nation," was the committee's choice as the correct answer. A snap judgment might have given choice No. 1 as the correct answer, "Vote regularly."

The questions throughout the test are objective in character, as the reader will notice, in order to facilitate the correction of the answers. Questions of the multiple

choice type are preferred in most of the divisions of the test, although other types are used.

In answering questions involving a civic or an ethical situation, the problem arose as to the difference between the knowledge of the pupil of the right thing to do, and the action which the pupil would actually take should such a situation arise in fact. Many persons, adults as well as children, know the right thing to do and, in answering such a question, would mark the correct answer, signifying that they would do it because naturally they would desire to make a high standing on the examination. In some of the try-out questions, for instance No. 21, on the question of receiving a supposedly undeserved mark of D in algebra, the question originally was worded—"What *would* you do?" As a result of the discussion it was thought best not to ask the pupil to tell what he *would* do, but rather what he *should* do. As it reads, the question now tests the child's judgment as to the best action to take in a given situation. Thus the conflict just referred to was avoided.

To test the question of the actual honesty of the child, a different type of question was introduced, as will be explained later on.

Reference to the examination questions will make plain the actual plan of the examination. The first 22 have to do with citizenship, the first 13 being of the information type. Items 14 to 22 are of the civic situation type, question 21 referred to above, and question 22 referring to situations which frequently arise in school (best education).

The next section is devoted to leisure time, questions 23-50 being of the knowledge type. The set of questions 51-67, inclusive, test the pupils' judgment. I am going to give the directions for this set of questions in order to explain the purpose.

The first part of the question is as follows: "Here is a list of activities in which many people engage. Consider each activ-

ity. If you think that the majority of people should spend some time on it during a year underline 'Yes'; if not underline 'No.'"<sup>1</sup>

The purpose here is to "provide a measure of the student's recognition of the place in life of many kinds of activities."<sup>1</sup> If at least thirteen out of the seventeen are underlined "yes," the pupil receives full credit.

The second part of the question is as follows, "After you have marked each item 'yes' or 'no,' then choose five, and only five, activities in which practically every person should engage regularly. Mark these five by a check in the box before them." The purpose here is to provide "a measure of the student's judgment as to the relative importance of various groups of leisure-time activities." Nos. 59, 60, 62, 63, and 64, if marked "yes," gives a student full credit—the activities listed being exercise and sports, reading, hobbies, social activities, and church activities.

The subject of vocations takes up questions 88 to 113, inclusive, in part II of the examination. These are vocational information in character, and are in many cases quite local in their application in order to test the pupils' knowledge of leading industries of their own city, Detroit. Questions 104 to 113 are of this character.

Item 114 is different in nature. The student is to indicate the occupations from which he thinks his choice will eventually be made, quoting from the key to the test, this part is scored as follows: Pupils "who check a relatively small number of occupations are scored high on the assumption that they have narrowed down the range from which they will make their choice of occupation."

Part 2 of item 114 asks that a line be drawn "through all the occupations listed that you think do not add to the social well-being of the community." "Pupils who

<sup>1</sup>The Administration and Use of the Detroit Cardinal Objectives Examination.



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cross out no occupations are given high credit. Those who cross out a number of occupations as being judged to be non-additive or positively harmful to the social well-being of the community are given low credit." This gives an opportunity to test the pupil's prejudices. In some cases pupils in crossing out an occupation, such as, for instance, maid, confused social well-being with social standing. When the scores on this test were tabulated, taking a sampling of 200 cases from each grade, it was found that only one occupation listed had not been crossed out by some one as harmful to the community well-being. It is perhaps flattering to us to know that this occupation was teaching.

Section 6, or questions 136 to 145, deal with ethical character. All but the last question test the pupil's judgment in a certain ethical situation, and are similar in general character to the set of questions on citizenship in the first section. A number of these are specially applicable to the conditions arising in school. As an example of this type, let us consider question 141.

"Assume that in taking record in a grade room at a vacant hour, you discover that a friend of yours is absent. What should you do?

1. Mark him absent
2. Not mark him absent
3. Tell him later that you will mark him absent if he does it again
4. Ask to be relieved of your duty of taking record "

In preparing the examination, question 141 was given in tryouts to three sections, one of the 12 A's, another of 10 A's, both composed of the better type of pupils. The question was given also to a 10 B "z" group, composed largely of pupils of D and E intelligence, some of them problem cases. There was no difference in the way that pupils in the "z" section answered the question from the way in which it was answered by pupils in an "x" section of the same

grade. However, when it came to the 12 A class, there was a larger proportion of pupils who said that they would not mark a friend absent, but would warn him the first time than in either tenth-grade class. The majority, however, still gave the desired answer. Possibly this was an isolated case. However, it illustrates the dangers of a favoritism to friends in such a matter as checking absences from assembly rooms, a duty turned over largely to pupils, especially older pupils, in many schools. It suggests the desirability of checking occasionally on the checkers themselves.

The last exercise, No. 145, gives a chance to test honest practice. The directions for this are "put your pencil on the cross in square No. 1; when the signal is given shut your eyes and move the pencil in the direction of the arrow around the center and back to the cross without touching the sides of the lane. Wait for the signal for each trial.

"After each trial, if you succeeded in doing that square correctly, put a check mark on the square after the number of the square you have just tried."

Omitting the rest of the directions, if five squares are correct the score is 100, and other scores in proportion. This scale of marking naturally offers considerable temptation to pupils to cheat by keeping their eyes open.

The point of the matter, of course, is that it is practically impossible for a pupil to get a high score, if he follows directions honestly. These marks, therefore, placed on the paper in the first correction are afterwards changed by the teacher in recorrecting this one question. Those pupils who turn correctly nine corners or less are then marked 10. Those turning more than nine corners receive a mark of zero.

In one of the intermediate schools, the principal and an assistant were working on these questions. The principal tried in vain to get all these squares correctly. Much disturbed he remarked that if he who had been

an artist all his life could not get them right, how could pupils possibly do it? Later he went upstairs and read the key, which explained the matter satisfactorily.

In one high school just after the examination, one of the boys who had a reputation for being unreliable brought his paper up proudly to his house principal and exclaimed, "Now that's the way to do the problem, isn't it?" An examination showed that every square on his paper was perfect.

The discussion in class which followed the taking of the examination was the most valuable part of the test. Teachers were able to direct attention to many points which otherwise would have escaped notice. Teachers in fact were expected to take pupils into their confidence about all the elements which made up the examination. In this way the test brought up many points which pupils do not ordinarily discuss in their school work. In fact the six objectives have probably rarely been brought directly to their notice up to this time.

A few questions were much discussed, such as exercise 16 (part 2 of the first part) which takes up the matter of building restrictions. The question reads:

"Building restrictions on your street call for single residences. A man can make money by being the first to break these restrictions by putting up a store on the corner, thus lowering the value of his neighbors' property. What should he do?" Four choices are given. The ideal answer as marked in the tryouts was No. 2, "Decide not to break the restrictions." The principle involved here is that which is inherent in the zoning system adopted by many cities. Detroit has not yet adopted this system. There was, therefore, a tendency in some quarters to challenge this answer.

Exercise 20 was likewise discussed considerably. It is as follows: "Assume that your community has voted and decided to have a park. You and some of your friends own lots on the site chosen for the park.

You do not believe the park is justified. What should you do?"

Choice No. 4 was marked as correct in the tryouts, "Accept the judgment of the majority, and sell the property as evaluated." There was, however, a feeling that No. 2 was allowable; that is, "Talk against the park." Possibly this was based on the same theory as Lincoln's decision that he would regard the Dred Scott decision as law, but would work to have it reconsidered and changed.

#### CONCLUSION

In concluding these remarks, we may say that, as was to be expected, there were errors in this examination. Some were misprints. In a few cases the facts were challenged. The bricklayer's income was given as \$65-100 weekly. A man who came to school to see the principal about his daughter's work incidentally mentioned the test and insisted that these figures were too high, even when bricklayers were working steadily, which at that time, a very dull period, many were not. Without going into the merits of any of the disputed points, we may say that were the examination to be given again, there would undoubtedly be some changes made in the light of experience. The chief general value of the test has been to call attention to these cardinal objectives, and, perhaps, give a basis from which some future work may be done along this line.

The results of this test would seem to show that to us as social-science teachers there is a problem, among others disclosed by these data, of raising the ethical standard in judgment as well as in actual practice. However, the medians in ethical character averaging about 15.9 for the eight grades out of a possible 19 would seem to indicate that ethical judgment was not so much lacking as was ethical action, where there were proportionately many more failures. Certainly the percentage of honesty in practice is not high enough to warrant us in being satisfied with present conditions. It may be

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objected that this is the problem of other departments as well as that of social science. However, the department which itself teaches citizenship must take the greater part of the responsibility for the development of any quality so vitally necessary to the citizenship of the pupils who pass through

our classes. Nor is this an easy task. The lack of positive correlation between ethical judgment and actual honesty would indicate that the methods for bringing about better citizenship in this line have not yet been worked out, but must be worked out in future in order to meet this situation.

## BRINGING AIMS AND ACTIVITIES TOGETHER IN THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ORLANDO W. STEPHENSON

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Stephenson is assistant professor of methods in the social studies in the University of Michigan High School. He is the author of several books of history and has taken an active part in curriculum reforms pertaining to the subject.* C. O. D.

A few years ago a nationally known educator made the statement that it is principally through the activities carried on in the classroom that the objectives in the social studies are attained, if they are attained at all. That seemed orthodox enough; but when we pressed him for a statement of those objectives, and for a list of the activities to which he referred, he had little to offer.

There was, however, a challenge in his generalization. We accepted it. We asked ourselves the questions: Why not make an effort to find out what the objectives in the social studies really are? Why not take steps to discover as many different activities as possible which might be profitably carried on in the classroom? Why not have the pupils engage in some of these activities to see whether they accomplish anything in the way of attaining our objectives?

To complete the investigations which these questions suggest meant an amount of labor of no mean proportions. In order to find out what our objectives were in the teaching of the social studies, it was necessary to analyze, for all of these studies, much of the same kind of material as that mentioned by Professor Wirth, of the George Peabody College for Teachers, in his discussion of aims in history. As he put it, "Considerable space has been devoted to

objectives in the reports of this Association and other organizations. . . . Makers of curricula, of whom we have had many in the past decade, have had prolific ideas on the subject and have exerted considerable influence on history in the public schools; likewise those engaged in outlining courses of studies for States, cities, and counties have attempted to add to the list by a rewording of the objectives already listed and the occasional statement of a new one. Numerous writers of textbooks on history and social science, it seems, have often sought to give merit to their respective volumes by a statement in the preface of the objectives, thus calling to the attention of those who have the task of selecting textbooks that theirs is not a mere collection of historical facts without a definite purpose; writers of books on methods of teaching history, as well as writers of numerous articles on the same subject, have made, or attempted to make, their contribution to this important field. Writers on educational theory have not overlooked this subject and have called our attention to the changing social conditions which have demanded a reorganization of education, and to the necessary enrichment of the curriculum and a likewise necessary "reexamination and restatement of objectives."<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *Co-operative School Bulletin*, VI, 7, p. 7.



A part of the material referred to in this quotation was not available to us, but enough of it was at hand perhaps to represent a fair sampling of the whole: the annual reports of the American Historical Association; the Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association; the courses of study of the cities of Denver, St. Louis, Birmingham, Houston, Cleveland, Baltimore, and that of the State of Missouri; the prefaces of more than one hundred textbooks on the different social studies; eight books on methods; and approximately one hundred and twenty-five articles in educational journals, including over fifty in *The Historical Outlook* alone. We proceeded as follows:

Each time an objective was stated in any of these writings, whether appearing for the first time or by way of repetition, it was noted on a separate card. The cards which bore different phrasings of the same idea were put in a group by themselves and a broader and more general statement was made for each group, each such statement covering the various phrasings of the same idea within that group. The first six of these more general statements are given below, and following each is a number to show the frequency with which the idea appeared:

- I. To develop those personal and civic virtues which will make of our pupils more worthy and more intelligently active members of the various social groups of which they are or may become a part—171

The personal, or inward-striking virtues, mentioned in one place or another in connection with this general aim, included reverence, honesty, sincerity, courage, self-confidence, initiative, enthusiasm, optimism, enterprise, industry, persistence, resourcefulness, thrift, and sense of humor; the civic, or outward-striking virtues included tolerance, patriotism, loyalty, coöperation, sense

of justice and fair play, desire to serve, respect for those in lawful authority, respect for the rights of others, courtesy, responsibility, and obedience. These virtues emphasize good citizenship, stressing as they do personal worth, worthy ideals, proper social attitudes, and a philosophy of right conduct.

- II. To familiarize pupils with such experiences of past and present times as shall enable them to understand and appreciate the times in which they live—144

Here the emphasis is upon knowledge, understandings, and appreciations.

- III. To fix proper habits of study and work—67

This aim stresses efficient mental processes, skill in the use of materials, and skill in the performance of necessary manipulations.

- IV. To give pupils a background for the appreciation of literature, art, music, travel, and for the further appreciation of the social sciences—16

In this aim the emphasis is also upon knowledge, but it is upon knowledge as a background for culture.

- V. To develop certain desirable mental attitudes, those which bring out careful discriminations, independent judgments, and the critical evaluation of evidence. In history, "historical-mindedness, which recognizes things as becoming, which sees in the past and present continuity, growth, and evolution"—15

- VI. To acquaint pupils with the diverse forms in which social-science materials are recorded, and with the materials used by people when engaging in the same kind of activities as those with which the social sciences are themselves concerned—12

Having discovered what seem to be valid aims in the teaching of the social studies, our next step was to discover the different types of activities by means of which these objectives could be reached. Fortunately for us, our investigation never had to be completed. Just such a list of activities as we were seeking to build up appeared in

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*The Historical Outlook*,<sup>2</sup> under the authorship of Mr. Howard E. Wilson, and entitled, "Things to do in the Social-Science Classroom." The "study activities," as Mr. Wilson calls them, though not complete, represent a "master list." These activities are not "mutually exclusive. . . . In each division are listed type activities; with each activity there is a definitive statement with an example or two, usually taken from a social-science textbook." There are eight major divisions of the list, the activities including those which are (1) visual, (2) listening, (3) oral, (4) writing, (5) drawing, (6) manual, (7) general, and (8) those which are "purely meditative."

The method by which the objectives and the activities can be brought together in a unit of work is described by Mr. Wilson in connection with a set of "*desirable learning products*." With these products or objectives before him the teacher "may then check through the master list of study activities to determine which, in his opinion, are most suitable for the attainment of the ends or objectives he has set up. In order to make the master list most useful for such a purpose, the teacher will have to elaborate it, especially by defining to his own satisfaction the purposes best served by each activity in the list."

If any importance can be attached to weight of numbers, the most worth-while objectives in the teaching of the social studies are those which are comprehended in the term "good citizenship." But we cannot be sure of the outcomes resulting from the use of certain of the activities listed in the different divisions of Mr. Wilson's article. The degree to which a pupil may possess one or more of the qualities embraced in this term is a thing we have not as yet been able successfully to determine. We have no inventory or other test in the administration of which objective evidence is provided whereby we can see how rev-

erent, or how honest, or how sincere a child may be when he enters upon the study of one of the social sciences, nor do we have any reliable method by which we can gage his degree of tolerance, patriotism, or loyalty when the end of a particular course has been reached. Even if a great change for the better is obvious, we cannot be sure that that change resulted from the pupils' having engaged in a series of activities carried on under our supervision in the social-science classroom. It is reasonable to suppose, nevertheless, that those activities which call for the exercise of such desirable citizenship virtues as we have mentioned will do more towards developing a pupil's citizenship qualities than will those activities which do not bring these qualities into play. It has been the experience of the writer that those activities which involve coöperative effort, wherein the feelings, opinions, interests, and rights of others must be taken into consideration if the activities are to be brought to a successful termination actually do bring these qualities into play, and that the successful termination of the activities actually does leave boys and girls with higher citizenship and higher personal ideals for having had a part in carrying them out.

Whatever uncertainty is felt over the value of some of the activities in the master list as aids to the development of desirable qualities of citizenship is weakened when we see what can be accomplished in the direction of attaining the other aims on our list. Knowledge, understandings, appreciations, proper habits of study and work, skill in the use and arrangement of materials, the development of desirable mental attitudes and all the rest have little value unless they can be made to function in the real situations of life. The chief merit in the use of these activities is that they do so function. The "visual" and the "listening" activities give pupils excellent training in the intelligent use of their eyes and ears; the "oral," the

<sup>2</sup> Vol. XX, 5, May, 1929, pp. 218-224.

"writing," and the "drawing" activities increase their skill in oral and written expression and in the graphical representation of ideas, while the "manual" and some of the "general" activities develop skills along equally valuable lines. Other activities go far in the direction of fixing proper habits of study and work while those of a "purely meditative" character give valuable experi-

ence in making careful discriminations, in forming independent judgments, and in the critical evaluation of evidence. In a word, activities of this kind do accomplish something in the way of attaining our ends, and it should not be beyond the range of the possible to devise tests which will measure that something with a fair degree of accuracy.

## SOCIAL-SCIENCE COURSE OF STUDY FOR THE LOW SEVENTH GRADE, SAN DIEGO, CALIFORNIA

T. MALCOLM BROWN AND AGNES WORK

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The authors of the accompanying article are connected with the Roosevelt Junior High School, San Diego, California. Mr. Brown is principal; Miss Work is chairman of the social-science department. Each has occupied his or her present position for a period of seven years.* C. O. D.

Being on the extreme southwestern border of the United States, and being the first American port of call north of the Panama Canal, much of our news, and many of our interests lie in the countries south of us. It is here that we begin our low seventh-grade work, which includes the exploration, settlement, and development of Mexico and Central and South America.

It is unfortunate that pupils are required to study geography and history as separate studies, when man's development and progress have been so deeply influenced and directed by his physical environment. It is no wonder that children often acquire a distinct dislike for history and geography, when for thirty minutes they must attempt to master the spelling and pronunciation of the important cities of Japan, and then spend the next thirty minutes memorizing the preamble to our Constitution.

Fortunate indeed are the children who have just finished the sixth-grade work in our schools, as the art, music, literature, and social science have been based on Europe. This provides a foundation to begin building on immediately.

Through the stories of Marco Polo, Prince Henry the Navigator, the invention of the printing press, compass, and astrolabe,

we soon have the Old World "set" for the discovery of America. The New World was discovered by accident. The stories of Columbus, Cabral, Vespucci, Balboa, and Magellan may have been heard before, but now they are given a new "twang." How interested the Old World must have been in the messages which Balboa sent back—the difficulties in the ascent of the mountains in his westward march across the Isthmus, his struggles with terrific heat, the daily tropical downpours, the strange fever which seized his men, and upon his arrival on the western shore and his determination to build two vessels—no iron or pitch were to be had!

After the European claims have been established, a detailed study of Mexico's development is begun. From the conquest of Cortez in 1521 to the present administration of Ortiz Rubio, the history and geography of Mexico go hand in hand. The highly developed civilization of the Aztecs, the valor of Montezuma, and the seeming cruelty of Cortez are always topics of lively discussions. Then the Spanish became inquisitive about the land to the north—Baja and Alta California. Were the mysterious straits of Anian to the north? Was Lower California an island? Were there seven cities of



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gold? Coronado marches northward, and while he crosses the American desert, Cabrillo sails into San Diego Bay!

After the long rule of the viceroys and Mexican struggle for freedom, a closer study of the people, their customs, their land, and their possibilities is developed. Being our closest neighbors, it is quite necessary that a sympathetic, friendly attitude be established.

A steamer leaving the port of San Diego takes us down past the Mexican coast to Guatemala, the "Switzerland of Central America" and "American bananaland," then on to Salvador, "the land of earthquakes," and we visit all of these small republics and British Honduras.

Picking up the thread of history, again we enter a field that children heretofore have not been treated to—the fascinating heroes of South America: Miranda, who gained his ideas of freedom from the United

States, and attempted a Venezuelan republic, and his followers, San Martin and Bolivar.

What could be more interesting to a seventh-grade boy than the story of Rosas, the cowboy dictator of Argentina? After watching the release of Spanish control in her South American colonies, we come to Brazil, different from all other colonies because of her early agricultural wealth, and what a contrast there is as Brazil becomes first an empire, and then, without any bloodshed, acquires the rights of a republic.

Understanding the early history and the important part the natural resources of that vast continent played, and the consequent rivalry of European countries for South American markets, we study the great geographical regions and try to determine what we can do to bind our friendship and increase our trade with our southern neighbor.

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JOHN L. LOUNSBURY

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Lounsbury is principal of the Woodrow Wilson High School and the Long Beach Junior College, Long Beach, California. He here makes a plea for teacher and pupil manuals which are to be placed in the hands of each pupil and teacher.

C. O. D.

The curriculum department of the Long Beach city schools has greatly facilitated the teaching of history in the high schools through teacher and pupil manuals which are placed in the hands of each pupil and teacher. These manuals offer the general and specific aims of the several courses in a language which is within the reach of both teacher and pupil. The plan of organization for United States history and government, for example, is as follows:

1. Description of the course
2. Aims of the course
3. Key to the reading references
4. Collateral reading
5. General directions for notebook and other written work
6. Directions for map making

7. Directions for preparation of year thesis

8. Current events

9. How to prepare a lesson assignment

The plan similar to the above is offered in the other social-science subjects, so that each class has a definite plan for procedure.

Probably the most outstanding contribution of the manual is the division of the content into parts or epochs. Each semester's offering is divided into parts or blocks under major topics and a definite time limit is set for each block or unit. Each unit is supplemented with the best selected references available, with visual aids, and by a list of thought questions bearing on the entire unit.

The entire plan of the manual may ap-

pear mechanical and was so criticized by some teachers before it was put into full operation. The fact remains, however, that such an organized scheme forms a basis for the development of intradepartmental uniformity of procedure. It serves as a basis for the establishment of minimum levels within the department, for those of below average ability, and at the same time provides enriched offerings for the superior. It establishes outposts for teachers and defines the range of teacher responsibility within a given field. For the creation of standard norms of achievement within a given department, the teaching unit has no equal. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the need for a more objective check on the range of content, method of presentation, and method of measuring achievement for each teacher.

The teaching unit as adopted in our school has produced better pupil control and has made the socialized recitation an effective scheme for class procedure. The level of class discussions has been raised and the number and frequency of pupil performance has increased. In the main, the teaching unit has made the class procedure dynamic and more intelligent, and has placed the emphasis where it belongs, *on the pupil.*

The teacher is now given an opportunity to become acquainted with his subject and his pupils and can employ his initiative and originality traits in developing methods of teaching which will be productive of still greater results. This is as it should be, as is shown by the types of teaching techniques which are being used by the teachers in the department.

For example, the subject of economics has, until recently, appealed only to the mature and superior pupils because of the difficulty of its vocabulary and the abstractness of its content. Since the introduction of specific teaching units, in which the ideas and language are carefully defined, the principles clearly interpreted and applied to situations within the grasp of the pupils, and the supplementary materials placed conveniently at their disposal, the enrollment in this course has been greatly increased and the level of pupil performance has been raised. The pupil's discriminating powers have been developed through research and he has become conscious of abilities which had never before been brought into play. Habits in the selection and organization of source materials are being formed which, in effect, become the chief motivating factors in the development of sustained effort and interest.

## SOCIAL STUDIES AS LIFE EXPERIENCES

LAWRENCE S. CHASE AND MARION G. CLARK

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Lawrence Chase is principal of the Hillside Junior High School, Montclair. He was formerly president of the New Jersey Elementary School Principals Association. Miss Marion Clark is the Supervisor of Elementary Education in Montclair. Miss Clark is very much interested in progressive education. Her understanding of the viewpoints of both pupils and teachers has made it possible for her to supervise instruction creatively as well as sympathetically. Mr. Chase is an advocate of a strongly socialized school and because of the varied character of his junior high school, he is having an interesting experience attempting to deal with a wide variety of individual differences.*

What do we want our boys and girls to think, feel, and know as a result of the social studies in the junior and senior schools?

Are we satisfied to give them political and economic facts which will enable them

to enter college and which will then be dismissed into the realm of forgotten things? Or do we wish to leave them with the ability to think through problems on the basis of given information, with the knowledge of what results from given situations, with a

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keen sense of evidence and how it may and may not rightly be used, with a sympathetic understanding of why people do and think as they do?

The progressive public school of today looks forward hopefully to the time when unto the necessary gain in factual knowledge, and in skills, all these latter things may be added.

In the social sciences pupils need facts as guideposts and points of departure, while skill in the use of books and general research methods is necessary to find the answers to problems. But most important of all is the chance that social sciences offer to boys and girls to re-live the valuable experiences of others.

A little girl known to the writers spent her first-grade year under the guidance of a very wise and stimulating teacher. During that time she acquired much factual knowledge about the world in general. Along with others she began to lay the foundation of skills in reading and writing and the use of numbers, but the greatest experience she had in the year did not come from any of these sources. When the class went out into the woods near the school and began the construction of an Indian wigwam the children had one of the greatest thrills of their lives. In carrying out this enterprise something entered into the life of the little girl which she still remembers lovingly five years later. The children re-lived something of the life of the Indians. They learned through living.

In the present organization of the secondary school, it requires more planning than in the elementary school to find expression through which the students may learn by living. It is perhaps more difficult to give high-school boys and girls the thrill which comes sometimes from a new enterprise. It is even more difficult for teachers to find such expression.

The real teacher of history, geography, or civics enters into these experiences and

gets much of the emotional reaction which the pupils get. Some time ago one of the writers of this paper was talking to a group of teachers about the necessity of teaching history with a changing point of view, a mind ready to meet the change in emphasis by reevaluating certain events or periods, a mind ready to reconsider the influence of certain men, parts played by nations, etc. After the class one of the teachers came up and in a tearful voice exclaimed, "You have taken the joy of history teaching from me for all time. I have loved to teach history because the facts remained the same from year to year. If I have to feel that history is in a state of flux then there is no further satisfaction in it for me."

What are some of the procedures which would give pupils of the secondary school the chance to learn through living? Some problems lend themselves to a greater variety of activity than others. Below is one requiring much activity.

The students of a ninth-grade ancient-history class became much interested in the life of the early Egyptians. The more they learned the more interested they became. Finally, some one wondered whether the Egyptians of 4500 years ago were as capable as Americans of today. The class set to work to find material and facts upon which to base a judgment. Committees were formed and several weeks taken for research. Some of the committees formed were to investigate:

The fine art of the Egyptians

The other hand skills of the Egyptians

Their constructive and building ability

Their mathematics and engineering

Their literature

Their religious ideas

At the time the tomb of Tut-ankh-amen was the center of interest, a committee began with much energy to make extensive investigations of the tombs of the kings. Then it was proposed to construct a burial place of wood. Carvings and inscriptions



were faithfully reproduced and, with the aid of electric light, some weird effects were secured. Around this investigation a play was written and produced before the student body and parents. Costumes were planned and made which would have done justice to a modern theatrical production. One committee made an extensive study of hieroglyphics and made some ancient and meaningful writings on wood; others painted scenery in which actual period pictures and inscriptions were made into stage sets.

When this lifelike dramatic selection was given, it not only was entertaining and pleasing to the student body and parents, but the attention to detail and the extent of the research astonished a group of students and professors from a normal college. It should be emphasized, however, that the pupils lived more really in preparing this demonstration than they did on the day of the performance. Each day of preparation proved to be an adventure into an ancient country and life which could have been excellent only by the actual experience.

Some time ago a teacher of geography complained that after New England had been studied for several weeks, the class did "not know anything about it," as the most important facts were missing when she plumbed the depths of knowledge of her class. Her supervisor, when appealed to, suggested that the experiment be tried of teaching New England over again but with a different point of view.

The situation seemed to involve:

1. Discussion of the situation with the class
2. Formation of a problem which would involve the same unit of work and still bring a fresh point of view
3. Collection of books, maps, and material necessary to solve the problem
4. Assignment of class, group, and individual tasks

5. Provision for reports and discussions

6. Testing of results

7. Conclusion or generalizations

The class agreed that the unit of work should center about this point: Why do so many people spend their summer vacations in New England? The point of attack was to be through automobile tours from northern New Jersey to different sections of New England. Automobile maps became the center of interest, but much additional information was needed concerning surface features, climate as influenced by the ocean, lakes, and mountains, bathing, boating, points of historical interest, city and rural industries.

First of all the class wanted to know: What auto roads lead from our city towards New England? What is the condition of the roads? How long would it take to drive to the Green Mountains? How long to Boston? How many days to Maine?

The daily procedure might be expressed as follows:

Reports	Test- ing	As- sign- ment	Library or Home investiga- tion
Discus- sion	20 min.	5-10 min.	5-10 min.
			10-20 min.
			Collection of ad- ditional material
			or
Test- ing	Reports Discus- sion	As- sign- ment	Committees Research Preparation of reports
			or
	Discus- sion	Research—Individual Construction — clay map of New England, etc.	

A unit of work of this nature can be carried through on a plane commensurate with the ability of either elementary or secondary students. It is a problem of interest worthy of any group. The average adult of today visits a region in the summer with no more complicated motives than expressed in this unit upon New England.

## SOCIAL STUDIES AS LIFE EXPERIENCES

The testing program was developed as expressed in the diagram of daily procedure; there was testing every day or so to see just what impression the pupils were getting. During the teaching time, however, the teacher and the supervisor agreed upon a final testing which should be upon the same material as the first teaching unit. The questions prepared represented both factual and judgment types and were such as the teacher agreed would test what a child needs to know about New England. The result was that the pupils passed the test to the satisfaction of the teacher and during the learning period they had the joy which comes from an enterprise based upon their interest.

The "field" in which the experience of each group of children is to take place has to be more or less definite, under the conditions existing in public-school systems today, in order to assure breadth and variety of contact, while the pupils develop their powers to attack and solve problems. For example, it may well be that the curriculum provides that the social experiences of a certain group shall result in acquaintance with the people of Europe, and the environment in which European civilization has developed. It may provide that another group shall become somewhat familiar with South Americans and their problems, past and present.

However, within the scope of that field, teachers have a multitude of opportunities to follow the "leads" which they have from the students. The business of evaluating those leads and of setting the stage in such a way that the students have the best possible experience in bringing to bear upon a problem all their interests and powers is the teacher's.

John Dewey said "the teacher is not in the school to impose certain ideas or to form certain habits in the child, but is there as a member of the community to select the

influences which shall affect the child and to assist him in properly responding to these influences."

How this selection of "influences" makes possible a unit of work which gives each child his opportunity to contribute and through which "the social life gives the unconscious unity and the background of all his efforts and of all his attainments" is shown in the following illustration.

The "field" defined for this class was the United States. The class had completed their solution to the problem "How the United States happens to be so large when it started with such a small amount of land." Their class map showed the additions of territory from time to time. They knew simple stories of the how and why of each acquisition. They were aware in a general way that these lands had been populated by the efforts of pioneers—just what pioneers, and where they came from was perhaps a bit hazy in their minds. The teacher rather feared that the pupils thought of them all as the descendants of the Pilgrims wending their way wearily bit by bit across the mountains and plains and scattering themselves more or less mathematically within the geometric figures defined by the boundaries of the States formed from newly acquired territory. She was alert for "leads" into some problem which could acquaint the pupils with the enormously cosmopolitan character of our people.

She listed the most suggestive leads as follows:

1. John brought in a letter from his aunt in Germany.
2. Jane had been to a dentist who was a Russian. She asked why he came to America.
3. One child's mother had read *Giants in the Earth*. Emma had heard her mother talk about the Scandinavians who went West, as told in the book.

4. A new boy from Sweden entered the class. He seemed diffident about being a foreigner.

5. A gang of Italians was working on the road near the school.

One morning a large outline map of the world appeared pasted to the blackboard at a comfortable writing level for the pupils. Conversation was started in the group by the teacher's asking Randolph to show on the map how grandfather came from Germany to our town. Nothing more was needed to interest every child in showing how his family came from some other country to America. Their information in many cases was "hearsay," but it indicated that in that rather select all-American school, twenty-three nationalities were represented, their arrival in America varying in date from 1620 to 1926.

For a week the class was enthusiastically bringing in new information from home in the shape of letters and books and all sorts of articles. Their early statements were checked and corrected. So many books appeared that a shelf in the bookcase was given over to them and a librarian appointed for it. During these conversational periods, the children were constantly asking each other why their families came here. A few had as definite an answer as Randolph had given on the first day, but most of them were dubious.

The teacher told them that, in the back of a certain book, Spark's, *The Expansion of America*, they could find a graph on immigration which might help them. They chose some one to get the book from the library, and some one to put the graph on the blackboard.

The whole group considered the graph, determining just what it meant. "Why?" again became the popular question. They finally concluded that for each rise and fall in the tide of immigration they especially wanted to know four things:

1. From what countries did most of the people come?

2. What happened in Europe that made them want to come?

3. What in America attracted them at that time?

4. Where did they settle in America?

Besides these questions there was the curiosity of the children about why the graph began with the year 1840, and their desire to have the graph continued from 1890 to 1930.

The class agreed to divide the work on the various problems. Before separating, however, they spent a library period in search for books which contained material. This period began with a discussion of the quickest method of finding out what books contain. All of the textbooks and classroom reference books were thoroughly examined. Whenever a pupil found a reference which might prove helpful he wrote it on the board. A committee was dispatched to the library. They added their findings to the list and the books which they had selected were added to the shelf. Books of European history were about as numerous as those on American history. The lines were down, for the pupils were thinking, not of American history nor of European history, but about solving their problem.

For about a week thereafter a chart of the activities of that classroom during its social-studies period would have shown conditions something like this:





## SOCIAL STUDIES AS LIFE EXPERIENCES

Group A of about five children was gathered about the library table searching for reasons why the line swung upward so decidedly from 1840 to 1853.

Group B was trying to account for the sudden drop from 1853 to 1860. Their chairs are drawn up to the bookcase at the left of the room.

Group C of three children had the *World's Almanac* and from its information they were building the graph from 1890 to 1930.

Group D were trying to find out why so many people came to America during our Civil War and from what countries they came.

Group E had the question: Why did so few people come in the early 70's and so many in the last few years of that decade and in the early 80's?

Group F were searching for the sudden drop in the number of people who came to America during the later 80's.

Group G took the responsibility for finding out where these various people settled in the United States. They finally evolved a map which at least partially indicated how Europeans have scattered over our country.

The answers to the questions as returned by the various groups were, of course, not detailed nor technical. But they included simple stories of the potato famine in Ireland, the rush for gold in America, the need for European troops for the wars in India and the Crimea, the Homestead acts and the lure of cheap land, the great advertising campaigns and low cost of transportation, the exclusion of the Chinese, and Congressional acts to check immigration. Many of the pupils were able to connect the coming of their own families to America with the happenings which they discussed.

One member of the class raised the question as to whether these people were still Europeans or had become Americans. This query furnished the step to the problem of

naturalization. Some naturalization papers were brought in from homes. Discussions as to why several years should elapse before foreigners are allowed the full rights of American citizenship were carried on among the groups of students.

A morning talk given by one of the pupils who had attended a symphony concert brought to the attention of the class the fact that the leader had a foreign name. Was he a citizen? This led from one question and investigation to another. It ended in the writing of a class book called "Europeans Who have become Leading Americans."

The cities of South America seemed vague and far away to one class of children until they chanced upon some interesting pictures of Cuzco. The quaint Inca city and the great modern city, centuries apart yet fitting together into the modern life of Peru, fascinated them.

They decided to reproduce the center of the city in clay, coloring and decorating it as they could with the true Spanish touch.

At the right of the table is the old Inca gate behind which are the houses built upon the original Indian foundation. About the gate are gathered natives selling their pottery and baskets. In the center is the modern cathedral with the fountain square before it.

The University occupies the place at the left rear surrounded by Spanish homes, while in the background are the coffee plantations backed by the great mountains.

Seen as a piece of construction work only, this might well be criticized as a waste of time. Looked upon as the study of typical changes which have taken place in South America and as an opportunity to bring all of the interests, powers, and abilities of the children to bear upon a problem, to analyze individual difficulties, to increase group co-operation, it seems eminently worth while.

The teacher wrote: "As a summary of some of the types of growth which the chil-

dren have made through this unit of work, I would list the following:

### Art

- a) Study of Spanish touch in coloring and decoration
- b) Study of Inca Indian art
- c) Study of Spanish types of architecture
- d) Pottery designs and shapes
- e) Study of lights and shadows in perspective effects
- f) Relative proportion used in planning sand table
- g) Principles of margins in arrangements of paper "

### "Construction Skills

1. Skill in manipulation of clay
  - a) Crumbles if too hard
  - b) Doesn't stand if too wet. All parts must be moulded together
  - c) Keep clay covered
  - d) Definite tools used and tools have definite purpose
  - e) Painted dry
2. Must have plan and pattern
3. Skillful mounting of paper with roller "

### "Use of a variety of materials

1. Textbooks
2. Library books
3. Pan American bulletins
4. Maps and charts
5. Pictures
6. Slides
7. General reference books and children's encyclopedias "

### "Social Growth

1. Working happily with others
2. Individual responsibility for his share in the common problem
3. Leadership in group
4. Gain in poise through their explanations to visitors
5. Resourcefulness in finding ways to do things and in searching for materials "

### "Acquaintance with New Words

1. The habit of referring to the dictionary was developed by their need to know about such words as architecture, cloisters, conquistadors, patio, poncho.
2. A list of 30 spelling words based upon this work was used as a 100 per cent list "

### "English Composition

#### A. Stories written by the children

- 'Trip to Cuzco'
- 'Story of Pizarro'
- 'Story of Alpaca'
- 'Story of Cacao'
- 'Story of Our Science Table'

#### B. Improvement in techniques of written English through discussion of:

1. Interesting ways to begin a story
2. How to tell clearly what we want to say
3. How to end a story effectively
4. Good sentence structure
5. What comprises a paragraph
6. Use of capital letters

C. Spontaneous oral expression in explaining unit to visitors and invited guests who needed guides "

### "Group Problems

Group 1. *Problem*—Geography of the country—Geographical position, climate, altitude, coast line natural

*References*—Atwood Geography, Tarr & McMurray, Human Geography by Grades, Carpenter's South America, Fairgrieve & Young.

Group 2. *Problem*—History of Peru—Pizarro, Capital city founded—change of seat, independence from Spain—Bolivia's liberators.

*References*—Home University Library. Stories of Early American History.

Group 3. *Problem*—Building of Cuzco, life and customs, cathedral, university, dwellings (ancient and modern), market place, etc.

*References*—Pan American bulletins, postcard sets (library), *Geographic Maga-*

## TO THE ENGLISH PROFESSOR

*sine*, South America by James Bryce, Our Neighbors in South America.

Group 4. *Problem*—Products and livelihood, minerals, cacao, wool (alpaca and llama).

*References*—Carpenter's South America, Compton's Encyclopedia, South America by Bowman, South America by Allen."

## "Reading

A. The work of the children on this unit of work developed:

1. Their habits of seeking information in various books
2. Their power to read informational matter with speed and comprehension
3. Their use of glossary, index, contents, etc.
4. Their habit of referring to newspapers for material of recent interest in connection with their problems

5. The appreciation of the instructive story, such as *The Inca Emerald* by Scoville

B. It created many situations which called for a few minutes of oral reading in an audience situation. This developed:

1. The habit of reading clearly and enunciating well since the reader realized the importance of the material to the work of the class.

2. The courtesy of the audience through real interest."

If this type of teaching is to be carried on in our classrooms, some changes in classroom organization and teaching technique naturally come about. If we accept such aims as are stated in this paper, we must replace our emphasis. Each teacher must make the adjustments necessary to bring about these desirable results. What adjustments are needed is a question which challenges the best thinking of each teacher.

## TO THE ENGLISH PROFESSOR

A. V. WILEY

Now here's to our dearly loved English professor  
The infallible judge and the valiant redresser  
Of crimes against rules and revered regulations,  
We wish he were banished with all his relations,  
But since it is not in our power to impeach him,  
We must fear him and court him and fondly beseech him  
Not to bring down the might of his wrath on our head,  
But to choose some less worshipful victim instead.  
Oh, how he must laugh as we ruthlessly spatter  
Whole oceans of ink on some trivial matter,  
On questions quite senseless and arguments futile

That the devil can't prove and when proved they're inutile.  
Whole hours we toil over one single paper,  
And our thoughts dim and hazy resembling vapor  
Refuse to condense in the proper condition,  
But chaotically mingle in every position.  
We never can find what our prof would desire,  
Yet still we strive on in an unending mire  
Till at last in a frenzy we hand in our theme  
That stirs up the wrath of the ruling régime;  
And no matter how loud or how long he may storm,  
We consistently stick to the incorrect form;  
Since all virtue is lodged in the pedagogue's brain,  
Our search for perfection is surely in vain.



## HITTING THE BULL'S-EYE

HOWARD R. DRIGGS

EDITOR'S NOTE: *We are glad to present another article by Dr. Driggs, professor of English education, New York University. His article, The Grammatical Merry-go-Round in the May number last year caused much favorable comment.*

F. E. L.

"Wal, thet preacher said he hadn't anythin' perticklar on his mind to say, an' then he took a hull hour to prove it," dryly remarked Hen White last summer after a certain Sunday meeting out West.

The old sagebrush philosopher summed up in this sentence the fatal fault of most preaching—and teaching, too. When a person has nothing particular to say, he always says it.

Rambling, disjointed, unfocused talk is one of the greatest time stealers, not only in church and in school but in business. Ability to say things worth time, to make a point clearly and crisply, is so rare as to be most refreshing. The talk of the majority of people seems to be the result of a common complaint which, for want of a better term, might be called the "talkitis."

A concerted effort needs to be made to rid our country of this contagious disease. It is a costly malady from not only the money side, but also the mental viewpoint. It both wastes time and generates lazy thinking.

Mark Twain put the essence of a good speech when he said, "A man should know what to say, how to say it, and when to quit."

Mr. Dooley also touched the vital spot in speech making by this remark to Hinnissey: "When a man's got somethin' to say and don't know how to say it, he generally says it pretty well."

Our schools have been so over concerned with the "how to say it," that they have largely neglected to help the pupil to find the "something to say" which is worth saying.

Here is an instance to make concrete the point. A certain professor, visiting a language class, found an oral composition

lesson in progress. One boy was on his feet talking aimlessly away about raising corn.

"What are you trying to tell this class, my boy?" asked the visitor.

"'Bout raising corn," came the indifferent reply.

"Don't they all know how corn is raised?"

"Yes, guess so."

"Then why take their time?"

"Well, the teacher told us to tell something about farming," said the boy defensively.

"That is a very good general subject; but can't you find topics of livelier interest in farming than 'raising corn?'"

"I don't know."

"Don't you think that the farmers would like to double the money they are making from their corn land," the professor suggested. "Can you tell me one way that would help them to do it?"

The boy immediately became alert. Several members of the class raised their hands. The result was a lively discussion during which various special problems on corn raising were brought into the clear: the questions of fertilization, soil preparation, choice of seed, cultivation, harvesting, marketing, feeding, all stimulated a lively interest.

Clearer purpose had been thrown into the recitation. The result was a request from the class to continue the discussion for the next day. The teacher wisely granted it, and even more wisely turned the recitation to helping each pupil find a special part to prepare for the following day's recitation.

## POETRY IN THE INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL

The best prevention for aimless talking is a clear-cut assignment. Each pupil, given something definite to do, is most likely to do it. The oft heard, old study direction "Take the next three pages for tomorrow," is an invitation to do nothing. Assignments of this type account for most of the lazy preparation and rambling recitations in the schoolroom.

When Admiral Dewey was asked how he managed to win the battle of Manila Bay so quickly and completely, he replied laconically, "By getting a good ready." The Admiral was "a crank" on marksmanship. For fifty years he had been practising with his men on "hitting the bull's-eye."

Teachers and preachers would do well to follow the old victor's inspiring example.

## POETRY IN THE INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL

MABEL O'BRIEN

EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss O'Brien is a teacher of English in the Yeatman Intermediate School of St. Louis. She has set forth in this brief article a plan for inspiring the most disinterested pupil to attempt creative work in the field of verse making.

L. W. R.

Much of the excellent poetry of children, though acknowledged to be of unusual quality, is thought to be the work of gifted pupils. But when one has found out that any number of classes with varying experiences and backgrounds have produced creditable bits of poetry, it must be admitted that the whole matter is not one of especially gifted children but the technique involved in producing the results.

Interest in creative expression of children led a committee at Teachers College, New York City, to investigate the curricula of various cities, in both public and private schools. Through the study of one hundred six curricula, results showed that less than ten suggested opportunities to be given for the writing of original poetry, but none hinted as to either procedure or activities to produce the same.

Inspired, however, to carry on some creative work, we dared to attempt some. Through inquiry we found that children rarely read poetry through choice. It was felt that a taste for poetry must be developed in children before asking them to write any. Ballads and narrative poems were read first and interest was awakened through the quick-moving story and the rhythm. Finally poems rich in imagery and

the lyric note were read by the teacher and by the children. The group, having become appreciative of imagery, the poet's choice of words, sensitive to rhythm, and cognizant of rhyme, had become sufficiently interested in poetry to attempt some for themselves.

What with the varying experiences of the children, with ever-changing nature making its appeal, and the vivid imaginations of childhood, we had an untold amount of material to draw upon.

Our first attempts were simply comparisons, the linking of commonplace objects with imaginary persons or things. Through selection of expressive words, pictures were made that appealed to the senses. Often the results were pleasing similes, couplets, or four-lined stanzas. Encouragement of these simple beginnings led to a feeling of adventure and longer poems have resulted. It was no unusual happening to have children offer to read their poems to their groups. Through the criticisms of the children, the writers became critical of their own work and were anxious to improve.

Interest in reading poetry was kept up by encouraging individuals to read to a group poems they liked; interest in writing poetry was kept alive by getting the indi-

vidual children to feel sure that they would have a sympathetic listener though perhaps a critical one.

Results of this work have produced many poems that deserve a place in the school

paper or the annual poetry book, a few poems that have a high lyrical note and beautiful poetic expressions, but most of all, a sensitivity to rhythm and a higher appreciation of poetry.

## "FIRST THINGS FIRST" IN MATTER OF FORM IN ENGLISH

MARGARET M. SKINNER

EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss Skinner is instructor in English in the Wisconsin High School of the University of Wisconsin. L. W. R.

Every teacher of English composition is faced daily with the problem of habitual inaccuracies of form. John, now a high-school junior, is spelling *too* exactly as he has always done—*to*; Mary is so accustomed to hearing "you was" at home that she invariably uses it in speaking and frequently in writing; Ned ignores periods with nonchalant indifference but struggles with commas because he feels vaguely that they are an acquirement of maturity; little Jane, whose literary power is noticeable, writes her brilliant themes in such execrable handwriting that even she cannot read her own productions when they are cold. For years these pupils have been subjected to "daily and hourly correction of all errors." They have "improved" countless compositions by following the trail of red-ink blazonings. To them a mistake is merely a mistake; a misspelling of *silhouette* is exactly like a misspelling of *dining*, and an omitted comma in a series is quite as objectionable as a violation of sentence sense. They have no sense of one-hundred-per-cent mastery of a few fundamental difficulties, and no recognition of what those difficulties are.

Nor have their teachers! Makers of courses of study have given too little attention to the relative seriousness of errors and to the frequency of them. The basis of schoolwork should be, first, what can actually be mastered by the "slowest, normal, diligent pupil"—really achievable standards and not mere "pious aspirations."

Of these points, the most essential must be selected for first teaching and for constant emphasis. Correctness is, after all, a relatively simple matter. Most of what is usually criticized could better be let alone in order to avoid the distraction of scattered emphasis. Statistics of opportunity for error are surprising reading in the light of what is usually taught. "It ain't" is about 170 times as often used as some error of the form "to lie down";<sup>1</sup> the singular possessive form of a noun is used some twenty times as frequently as the plural possessive form;<sup>2</sup> a period appears forty times for every question mark.<sup>3</sup> A widely advertised correspondence school bases its work in English on statistics of frequency and relative importance of errors, stating that 69 words and their repetition make up more than half of all our speech and letter writing, that 25 typical errors in grammar constitute nine tenths of all of our everyday mistakes, and that there are less than a dozen fundamental principles of punctuation.

A "descent to earth" in form fundamentals is well voiced by S. A. Leonard:<sup>4</sup>

If pupils in the junior high school could be taught merely to speak or write a single paragraph of four

<sup>1</sup> C. H. Matravers, "A Corrective—Language Program," *English Journal*, XVIII, 7, p. 564, September 3, 1929.

<sup>2</sup> M. F. Carpenter, Occasion for Punctuation in Ninth Grade Themes, University of Iowa, Leaflet No. 4, April 1926.

<sup>3</sup> Ruhlen and Pressley study, *English Journal*, XVI, No. 6, June, 1927.

<sup>4</sup> *Aims in English Instruction*, Baltimore Bulletin of Education, VII, 2.



## "FIRST THINGS FIRST" IN MATTER OF FORM IN ENGLISH

or five sentences of story or explanation; to write a small courteous social letter and a quite clear order letter; to put periods at the ends of sentences and not elsewhere; and to spell possibly 75 words with unerring accuracy; and if they could know, well enough to use them at least in the schoolroom, the proper equivalents for twenty gross and common grammatical errors—well, they would be much better prepared for the college or for business than are the average products of high-school courses nowadays. The senior high school, granted such a foundation, would have plenty of time to deal with the writing of longer papers, the sacred matter of inserting commas, and the more esoteric problems of spelling and usage.

Any one who considers this program absurdly simple is invited to try it! It represents heaven's plenty of work for three earnest years. And of course it assumes that what we want is not a "namby-pamby 70 per cent performance" but real mastery with a score of 93 to 100 per cent.

At the Wisconsin High School (University of Wisconsin), the 70-odd seniors and their teachers have been facing this problem of nonmastery of fundamentals of form. Experimentation early in the year with a battery of simple tests and a few themes demonstrated, clearly, individual and group difficulties. Checking these by frequency tables and importance-rating charts led to the setting up of a few form minima, obviously not yet mastered. As far as possible objective standards for each detail were secured. Copies of the Ayres and Thorndike handwriting scales were posted on the bulletin boards, and each pupil urged to grade his writing by them at regular intervals. A committee selected by the pupils posted particularly good manuscripts, indicating standards of margins and neatness. "The Wisconsin High School Spelling Demons," a 30-word list of simple words consistently misspelled throughout the school, was put into each pupil's folder. Posters were made to illustrate clearly "sentence-sense" errors and those fundamental difficulties of grammar and usage which were under fire in this drive. Finally,

after thorough discussion and at the request of pupils, the classes worked out a tentative evaluation sheet on these form matters.

### *Tentative Grading of Form Mechanics—100%*

*Appearance* (writing, margins, neatness) 1-10 points

*Spelling* 20 points off for each misspelled "demon"

*Punctuation* 20 points off for each "sentence-sense" error

*Grammar and usage* 20 points off for each "great error"

One at a time each of these principles was taught to groups and individuals, all possible use being made of previous training. Short exercises galore on particularly weak spots were worked out, many of them made and administered by the pupils themselves. On all themes and quizzes violations of these accepted fundamentals were double-checked. Very few other form errors were noted, except on papers of students who had demonstrated 100 per cent mastery of the "demons." Every piece of written work and every oral composition received a double grade ( $\frac{n}{20}$ ), the mark above the line representing the value of the ideas and organization and the mark below the line mastery of the class "demons" of form. It was clearly understood that there was no "averaging" of grades above the line and below, and that no brilliant nor original ideas could make up for form errors.

At the end of every unit of work, each pupil made up his own record. On a card furnished him, he listed in order his themes and exercises, graded each as to appearance, recorded the actual number of "sentence-sense" errors, of misspelled "demons," of "great errors" in grammar and usage. He was forced to recognize two things—his major problems and his success in mastering them. Then, on the basis of past performance and evident needs he planned his own work for the next period.

One hundred per cent mastery has not

yet come for all students by any means. Each pupil has, however, an idea of what the *serious* form errors are in general, and he has a definite irrefutable record of his

own difficulties. The whole English department has benefited, indirectly, through a clearer definition of form fundamentals in terms of actual accomplishment.

## INDIVIDUALIZING INDUSTRIAL ARTS

JAMES E. HOPKINS

EDITOR'S NOTE: *James E. Hopkins is supervisor of manual training in the schools of South Orange and Maplewood, New Jersey. His part in the development of the unusually effective and flexible system of high-school education that is to be found in those communities is an important one.*

A. D. W.

Some years ago when we were all turning out the same series of joints in our shopwork and putting our classes through the same manipulative exercises, we might all have used the same text advantageously. Now, however, with the progress that has been made in manual-training work in the last few years, we find a variety of plans in use. There seems to be a feeling in some quarters, unfortunately, that we must decide which plan is correct and unify the work. As a matter of fact, there are hundreds of contributory factors in each community which should tend to make us disagree both as to the content and method we use in our shops.

Our own work has constantly changed and undoubtedly will continue to change in order to progress with conditions in the community. The plan in use now, while it satisfies our present needs, will no doubt be changed considerably within a year or two. We are organized on the 6-3-3 plan and the only handwork in the first six grades is of an informal nature and is handled by the classroom teacher instead of by a special manual-training man. We do not feel justified in maintaining an extensive equipment for the type of work needed in these schools. Therefore when the boys enter junior high school, they have had no previous training which might enable them to choose wisely the type of work which they wish to do, so we require all of them to take several short-unit courses. In the seventh grade, they have

everyday mechanics and sheet-metal work; in the eighth grade, they have electrical work and woodwork. The nature of these courses is such that it provides, after a short time, for election of projects by the boys and flexibility to meet individual needs. Naturally, we attempt to guide this election so that the work may be progressively more difficult in order to offer a challenge to the boy. All of the ninth-year work is elective in so far as medium is concerned and, inasmuch as we lose very few students in the seventh and eighth years, this opportunity becomes available to nearly all. The time allowed in junior high school for shopwork is three hours a week for one semester each year but, in the ninth year, one may elect double this time.

Manual training is not required in our senior high school except for boys taking the practical-arts course. A large part of the enrollment in shopwork, however, consists of boys and girls who do not belong to that group but have elected to take the work. We have, in our senior high school, an auto mechanics shop and a large general shop. The problem of organization in auto mechanics is comparatively simple as none of the entrants have had previous training along this line, but the general shop provides a much more complex problem. We have both boys and girls from all classes and curricula in the same groups, and they may be taking from two to eight periods of shopwork a week and may elect to work in wood, sheet metal, art metal,

## THE SCARSDALE PLAN

or electricity. Such classes are handled by one man and perhaps the greatest difficulty he faces is getting them started at the beginning of the year. In the first place, the instructor must check the individual record cards which come from the junior high school showing the projects previously attempted and the degree of success with each. Then, individual conferences must follow in regard to the project to be elected in senior high. This sounds like a long process but, in reality, it is accomplished in a comparatively short time. Elections may be made from plans already in the shop or the student may bring in his own plan but, in either case, his first job is to make out a bill of material for the project. In some instances this step reveals the fact that the student has no conception of the construction involved. After the plan has been agreed upon by instructor and student, the first piece of stock is issued and work starts with the regular hand tools. Before any machines may be used, the student must bring written permission from home, and must also exhibit a certain degree of proficiency with hand tools. Working with this plan means that there are as many different projects under construction as

there are students in a class and, as one is completed, a new one must be planned. The instructor must continually watch the group and give individual instruction and demonstrations wherever necessary. As a result, the total amount of teaching necessary under this plan is considerably greater than under the old plan where one demonstration answered for the entire group.

We readily agree that this is a difficult job for a teacher and that it is a problem to find men who can qualify both as to technical training and personality. The plan is worth while, however, due to the fact that we succeed in reaching the individuals in the group and get some insight into their individual problems, and by problems, I mean problems of life and not merely shop problems. With this plan, an instructor should be able to take students of varying degrees of mentality and training, provide opportunity for growth and for that feeling of self-confidence which comes from accomplishment. In this way, each student will, at least in his shopwork, have been given the opportunity to attain that degree of success to which his own individual ability entitles him.

## THE SCARSDALE PLAN

RALPH I. UNDERHILL, CLEORA SUTCH, AND OTHERS

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The following article was prepared as a joint project of the history department of the Scarsdale, New York, Junior-Senior High School. Mr. Ralph I. Underhill is superintendent; Miss Cleora Sutch is head of the department of history. The article describes procedures built upon the Dalton Plan.* C. O. D.

According to Plato, the first step in approaching understanding is a definition of terms. Since, when speaking of the contract method, different meanings are attached by different people to the terms employed, a definition of what is meant by "contract," "conference," etc., as used in the Scarsdale plan may help to clarify the procedure.

A *contract* is a mimeographed sheet or sheets of paper given to each pupil at the beginning of a month's work. It is an as-

signment for twenty school days, valued in units, each of which equals one day's work.

*Conference time* is the time during which the pupils are scheduled to report to the social-study laboratory or classroom. This time varies. There are three conferences a week in the seventh grade, five in the eighth, four in the high school—all of fifty-five minutes each, except on Fridays, when they are forty-five. This time belongs to the teacher to use as she thinks best. She may call the



entire section every conference period. She may call the entire group regularly only on certain days, leaving other days to work with pupils who for some reason need more help. In grades seven and eight the entire class meets every scheduled period, though some members may be permitted to use some of these periods as general study periods. The high-school classes usually have conferences three times a week. In general, scheduled conferences for the whole group are fewer than the usual classroom recitation periods, leaving a margin of "free" (unscheduled) time to both pupils and teachers.

The Scarsdale plan hopes to accomplish certain aims. Since the course in history, civics, or geography is broken up into large units, each contract representing one or more big topics, the amount to be covered is visible to the pupil at a glance. We feel that this gives pupils a bird's-eye view of the month's work, a sense of perspective and proportion especially valuable in the social studies. In the second place, the contract acts as a directive sheet for the month. There is definite assignment for specific conferences. The pupil knows exactly the things for which he will be responsible. Thirdly, we aim to take care of individual differences by the assignments on the contract itself, and by the proper use of the free time allowed for by this system.

Another aim we seek to accomplish by contracts is to place responsibility squarely on the pupil. Since the contract provides for definite assignments, handing it to the pupil is saying "here is your job." The teacher stands by ready to help, but the pupil is made to feel the challenge and knows that there can be no evasion, misunderstanding, or "slipping out from under" his responsibility.

Naturally, a good contract is one which fulfills the above aims. More specifically, there are certain definite points. A good contract needs no explanation; no question

is raised by the pupil as to which units are to be prepared for specified conferences and which are "free," or where materials are to be found.

An ideal contract in the social studies should have unity. This is not always possible, but by careful planning of the year's work, much can be done. For instance, Napoleon's entire career may be crowded into one contract, even though the amount of reading in the texts may necessitate some short cuts there or lightening of the month's work by some other means. In so far as possible the subjects for conferences should have unity. If it seems necessary to treat of apparently disparate subjects, some connection of location, time, cause, and result, etc., may be established, as a satisfactory conference as well as an ideal contract has this quality of unity.

A good contract provides for individual work and for individual differences. In the social studies such things as mapwork, supplementary reading reports, oral or written, subjects chosen by pupils and reported to the whole group in conferences furnish individual work. Contracts can be "differentiated" to provide for individual differences in various ways. In the Junior High School in Scarsdale, the so-called A, B, C method is used. Section A of the contract is for every one, the B section is for all but the weakest pupils, and the C section is for the superior pupils in the group. The Senior High School prints the body of the contract as intended for all except the superior pupils, but starring certain work calls attention to the problems which all must master, and provides "honor units," or a "maximum assignment" for the most able.

Finally a good contract stimulates the pupil's desire to work. This may be done by some technical device such as variety in assignment, or the problems for conferences may challenge the pupil to think for himself, or the teacher may indicate a new

## THE SCARSDALE PLAN

idea, a new interpretation, which arouses interest. When the pupil looks over his new contract, his reaction should be one of pleasure, of interest, of desire to get to work.

Conversely, a bad contract fails to fulfill the aims as stated above. A contract which is indefinite, so that the pupil is not sure of assignments, is a bad contract. So is one where the relation or transition between its parts is not shown or which does not provide for individual differences. Pupils need to feel confident that the work assigned has a value, that it ought to be done. If problems are not pertinent, or the value of them is not clear to the pupil, his incentive to learn is lessened. Contracts can be too meager, with nothing to stimulate interest, or they can err by being so full that the sense of unity is destroyed.

Along with the contract, and an integral part of it, go tests and worksheets. There is a final test for each contract, and a well-planned test, of whatever nature, takes cognizance of the differentiation on the contract, stressing the "A" section or the starred problems, so that the weaker pupils, by mastering those minimum essentials, can attain at least the lowest passing mark. During the contract tests may be planned for and given at conferences as the nature of the work seems to indicate. Worksheets may be for drill, for guidance in preparation, or for any use which will help good teaching by aiding in the learning process. A good teacher of the social studies, of course, knows where best use can be made of such technical aids as worksheets and new type tests, but in the shortened class time of the contract system it is essential that time be used most advantageously.

To claim that the contract plan as developed in Scarsdale accomplishes the aims set out for it may seem in itself more than sufficient justification for its use. The teachers feel however that certain other advantages have been found. As far as the

teacher is concerned, she probably does a better job in planning her year's work and in making her assignments. The contracts serve almost as a syllabus, useful in review to both teacher and pupil, and most helpful to both in case of the pupil's absence. Also where transfers are made to our school, a definite, detailed statement of the work the group has already done is available to the new pupil, or can be sent with a pupil who leaves us for another school. Our contracts have been found most helpful by private tutors who use them to cover work with pupils during a long absence, or when more assistance is needed than the school can furnish. Requirements for special preparation, such as the College Entrance Examinations, are handled more easily. The individual reckoning with each pupil (as to his achievements on that contract), which comes at the end of each month, gives the teacher the satisfaction of knowing that no loose ends are dragging on, continually hindering progress.

Another advantage of the contract plan is that the use of several texts is more easily taken care of than by daily assignments. Seeing the month's work in advance, pupils often are alert for current event items or outside material on topics to be dealt with later in the month. The same sense of seeing the job as a whole which leads a boy to bring his geography teacher a newspaper clipping on India, when he knows that next week the conferences will deal with India, also is beneficial in daily preparation. Our staff feels strongly that pupils have acquired a more scientific attitude towards preparing their lessons. One interesting development is that as children come up through the grades into the high school accustomed to using contracts, we notice increasingly this better sense of knowing how to go about preparing lessons.

Most of the above points are our own observations, and, as such, possibly open to

a charge of partiality. The results of outside examinations are more impersonal, and we feel bear us out in our enthusiasm for the use of contracts. The value of the Scarsdale plan, which was introduced in 1924, in preparing boys and girls for college entrance, college life, or for business may be seen from a comparison of the 1923 and 1928 Regents Examinations, from the College Board Examination results in June, 1928, and from the records of those members of the graduating class of 1928 who are now in college. Since 1923 the percentage of failure has shown a significant decrease—fewer pupils fail to make their grade than used to be true—and the Regents record has risen about ten points. In June, 1923, three fourths of the marks were above 66 per cent; one half were above 73 per cent; and one fourth were above 83.5 per cent. In June, 1928, three fourths of the Regents marks were above 77 per cent, a gain of 10 points; and one fourth were above 89 per cent, a gain of 5.5 points over 1923. The percentage of success in 1928 was 96 per cent, the best record that the school has made. In June, 1928, 41 College Entrance Board Examinations were taken by high-school pupils; 38 papers were successes, 7 marks were over 90, and 12 over 80. The records of the graduating class of 1928 during the first semester of their college course confirm the promise of their entrance examinations; 27 boys and girls of 1928 are attending 16 colleges; 4 are at Cornell, 4 at Dartmouth, 2 each at Colgate, Columbia, Mount Holyoke, Vassar, and Wellesley, while there is one represen-

tative at Barnard, Michigan, Harvard, Syracuse, North Dakota, Sarah Lawrence, Trinity, Wells, and Yale. Altogether these 27 graduates received 161 marks as a result of their first semester's work in college; 23 marks, or 14.1 per cent, were A's; 67, or 41.6 per cent, were B's; 55, or 34.1 per cent, were C's; 12, or 7.5 per cent, were D's; and 4, or 2.6 per cent, were E's. Their average school final mark was 82; their average college mark is 80. This record attests not only the excellence of the teaching these graduates had received in the high school, but also the value of their training in organizing time, planning work, and carrying responsibility which the Scarsdale plan had made possible for them.

Both teachers and pupils work happily under our plan. The boys and girls by now take it for granted, but when a chance for comparison is offered—when helping a new student get adjusted, when another school has been visited, or, most often, when as graduates they come back from college to visit—their enthusiasm is delightful. Discipline problems have greatly diminished, as conference time acquires a value to pupils, and as the pupil-teacher relationship becomes a coöperative working out of a common task. We believe that the contracts challenge and stimulate interest, teach individual responsibility, and aid pupils to think for themselves; that they make for more effective teaching and create a better relationship between pupil and teacher—in short, that they make for us a happier and more efficient school.

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## CURRICULUM REVISION TO IMPROVE ALL COURSES OF INSTRUCTION

H. F. SRYGLEY

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Srygley has been superintendent of the Raleigh (North Carolina) township schools since 1922. Previous to this he was superintendent of the Morganton public schools, Morganton, North Carolina. During this time he has led in the building of fifteen new school buildings where he has been superintendent. The present article is a summary of a curriculum-revision program which he has been carrying on during the last five years. Mr. Srygley in this article outlines a general program of procedure with emphasis upon the English phase of the curriculum.*

L. W. R.

In giving an account of the work the Raleigh schools are doing for better expression in English, it will be necessary to give a rather complete history of the steps taken in a curriculum-revision program that has been developed in this school system. The program is unique in one very essential point, that of the length of time given to its development. The course of study is to be the outgrowth of a twelve-year activity curriculum at work. The leaders in this plan desired to progress gradually, as teachers became convinced, and to measure points of progress, in order to prevent any upset in the curriculum as it was found.

English, as it is being taught, has an important place in the planning and the revision of the course of study, but it will be treated as a course in motivated material in creative activity, the emphasis being placed on the abilities of the teacher to provide opportunities for the creative expression of the pupils, and not alone on the opportunity to learn formal English.

Another important point to observe in this plan is the fact that education is a continuous process. The English program should start in the preschool life of the child and continue through the high school. Forty-five minutes a day for one hundred and ninety days a year for twelve years will not train one in the expression of one's ideas and higher emotions in English which will be pure, pleasing, and acceptable, unless there have been actual life situations to prompt and bring forth emotions and ideas. Enriched ideas will make for better English, which will in turn call for increased skill. Dr. John Dewey says, "Moreover,

subject matter never can be got into the child from without. Learning is active. It involves organic assimilation starting from within."

About six years ago a group of high- and elementary-school principals in Raleigh, North Carolina, realized that something should be done to shift a "subject-centered" type of curriculum to one that would more nearly recognize the principle contained in the above quotation. After carefully studying the local situation, its needs and its problems, it was decided to put on a vigorous curriculum-revision program and develop a course of study that would be "child centered."

Under the leadership of Dr. Thomas Alexander, of Teachers College, a program of curriculum revision has been developed which has reached a point of safety in the minds of school specialists and the public which it serves. The work has been conducted by the teachers and principals, with the assistance of the various supervisors in music, art, and physical education, under the direction of the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, and other specialists who have been called in from time to time.

The first year was taken up with making a survey of the work going on in the field of curriculum reconstruction and with plans for needed revision of the curriculum of the Raleigh schools. Believing the seventeen principals engaged in the system to be the group that would be the most permanent from the standpoint of tenure over a period of several years, it was decided that they could be made the integrating agents to

pull together all of the forces at work for the purpose of initiating and carrying the plans to a successful conclusion.

Principals are, by the nature of their work, in closer contact with both teachers and children than any other group in a school system. It is hard for a school to rise above the professional vision of its principal. His daily opportunity to inspire the whole school and to keep in touch with parents makes his place in the fields of administration and supervision. The device of budgeting the principal's time in order to free him from petty duties and put emphasis on supervision succeeded in developing a professional experimental attitude of mind among this group. This required serious study for one school year and made a beginning for the next step, the second year's work. During the second year the entire staff—principals, supervisors, elementary and high-school teachers—read widely to set up general and specific objectives by subjects and by grades for the educational program for the system. This year, also, a need was developed for a professional library. This gave many individual teachers an opportunity and an interest in reading about what others had said and done in their respective fields.

Subject-matter committees were organized from the teaching corps, the third year, to suggest definite subject matter for each grade that would help realize the objectives proposed the preceding year. Each committee was composed of teachers representing every grade from the first through the high school, as well as principals and supervisors of special subjects. The assistant superintendent worked with each committee on the call of the chairman, who was elected by the group.

Grade committees were organized the fourth year for the purpose of integrating the work of the different subject-matter groups. During the entire period, classroom teachers had been growing in an under-

standing of the meaning of an activity program and in the ability to organize their work in worth-while units growing out of centers of interesting and vital experiences of children. A very careful record has been kept by each teacher of the outcomes of the units that have been developed. Standardized achievement tests have been given twice each year to see that the pupils reach the standard for each grade.

The general committees on subject matter and content set forth their work in the following groupings: (1) aims of education, (2) extracurricular activities, (3) mathematics, (4) foreign language, (5) English, (6) social studies, (7) health and physical education, (8) art education, (9) music, (10) home science, (11) industrial arts, (12) vocational education, (13) science and nature study. The integrating committees placed the content of the subjects and worked under the following headings: (1) grade one, (2) grade two, (3) grade three, (4) grade four, (5) grade five, (6) grade six (grade seven went over into junior-high-school work and was left until the present year), (7) committee on records, (8) committee on teaching in first grade, (9) committee on teaching in grades two and three, (10) committee on teaching in grades four, five, and six, (11) committee to edit high-school course, and five special committees as follows: definition of education, underlying principles of the course of study, technique of teaching the daily program, how to use the course of study, list of suggested activities, and the acquaintance period.

These committees have done the work largely from the child's point of view. As the large units of work are developed, the outcomes are to be checked against a "check list" of objectives and subject matter. So far in this plan the administrators have felt secure in their belief that a large worth-while activity fairly directed by an enthusiastic, intelligent teacher produces larger

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returns, in every way, than the formal procedure of a few years ago.

Today we are not so much concerned with the subject taught as with the growth and development of the child. Yesterday our educational aim was acquisition of knowledge; now it encourages, as well, the cultivation of the creative spirit, the development of desirable ideals, attitudes, habits, and skills. By creative work, whether in English, the fine or the mechanical arts, is not meant alone the development of poets, artists, sculptors, or musicians, but the development of the creative faculties that are found in every normal human being. To grow, a child must be active, he must investigate, he must try out his own ideas, he must have real experiences. The creative spirit is the impulse to do, to think originally, to meet new life situations.

Pupils in the lower grades, under the guiding personality of a good teacher in all the fields of subject matter and social traits have an excellent opportunity to become part of a group and to take pride in the achievements of the group, but when they arrive in the high school where the organization is around class periods and subject matter they are prevented from carrying on any large unit of work. To meet the needs of children of junior-high-school age, the administration of high-school courses has made it possible to continue an activity program.

North Carolina has a seven-four school organization. Raleigh has adopted a six-five plan of education. When a child comes from a lower grade through an activity program, he usually knows how to think independently. Heretofore, in the high school, an activity curriculum faced disaster. Either the child had to change his way of thinking and working and learn to adjust himself to a new situation, or the teacher had to change her point of view and arrange subject matter around large problems instead of textbooks.

Five different teachers a day, each teacher with one hundred or more pupils in several courses of instruction, made a bewildering situation for both teacher and child. Beauty of expression, freedom of speech, attitudes, and worth-while objectives became involved in difficulties. Teachers did not know pupils nor did pupils know teachers, except as their names were called from the roll book, in the old plan of high-school organization. In the seventh and eighth grades of the Raleigh high schools a plan is in operation whereby a group of children is assigned to a teacher for a long period each day, usually from nine to twelve in the morning. During this time a group activity is carried on. The remainder of the day the children take up their work in the skill subjects. English, writing, language, composition, mathematics, foreign language, general science, social science, music, and mechanical arts are treated as subject-matter courses.

In this large unit, needs arise for the definite skills and the formation of large life concepts. Principles, and not facts, control the question as to what is to be taught. When people live and work together in groups, the art of communication is very important. One of the first steps in human progress was the development of oral language. Written language, also, has been considered essential; therefore, it is necessary to teach language expression to meet a felt need. This need comes when pupils are put in learning situations.

There are at present in the seventh and eighth grades fourteen sections doing work of this kind in two high schools for white children. Decision has not been made as to what will be done with these pupils when they reach the ninth grade. If teachers can be developed fast enough and if the experiment proves successful, the chances are the day will be divided into three parts as follows: one long period for the large worth-while activity, shorter periods for the



skill subjects, and another period for vocational training.

The following tests are being used to check the work in English: Terman Group Intelligence, Form B; Sangren-Woody Reading Test; Briggs English Form Test; and Huddleson English Composition-Scale.

There will be given about one hundred and twenty thousand pupil recitation opportunities in the city of Raleigh this year. This does not count all the opportunities other teachers have for correcting faulty English during other periods of the day, nor does it count the unnumbered opportunities children have out of school to be influenced for good English. It is not amazing that English teachers in the high school report that "the run-on sentence in composition," "the teachers learn me to speak English," "double negatives," "the use of

ain't," "incorrect verb forms: to be, see, and come," "they have to go home," "it don't," "comma used with all nouns ending in s" and "not starting sentences with capital letters" are the things that worry them most!

The solution of the problem lies in teaching children, not in teaching English. There is a difference between a school system and an educational system. As Dewey says: "It is folly to suppose that we can carry on the education of the child apart from the education of the teacher." The teacher should have a large part in shaping the course in a school system only when he knows child life. Then he should have a main responsibility for determining the content of the curriculum. In this way the English education of high-school pupils can be improved.

## GROUP STUDY FOR SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

WILLIAM H. BRISTOW

The committee on the Organization of Investigations in Secondary Education of the Department of Secondary School Principals is the outgrowth of the demand which has been made for a clearing house for investigations by groups engaged in coöperative research in the field of secondary education. The committee, of which Dr. C. H. Judd, director of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, is chairman is composed of representatives of professors of secondary education, members of State departments of education, superintendents, and high-school principals, appointed by the president of the Department of Secondary School Principals.

One of the sessions of the Department of Secondary School Principals at the meeting at Atlantic City was devoted to a review of the work of various study groups. This meeting was reported in the last Yearbook of the Department.

The purpose of the committee is to stimulate the organization of groups of principals

throughout the United States who are interested in research problems, and coördinate coöperative research projects. It is felt that the work of groups of principals will be more purposeful if a number of groups are working on the same problem, following the same procedures, and exchanging their findings.

It is further hoped that this program will increase interest in field studies carried out by groups of secondary-school principals. In general, experiments have been for the most part conducted by students in educational institutions. The experiments thus devised have frequently not been of sufficient scope to make the findings valid.

Research problems carried on by a group of secondary-school principals working together on common problems should have the following advantages:

1. The activities of such groups should serve as a means of professionalizing the position of the secondary-school principalship.

## BOOK NOTES

2. The activities of the group will provide a means for individual growth on the part of the secondary-school men participating in the studies.

3. The conclusions drawn from studies distributed over a relatively large area and participated in by a large group of principals should have greater prestige than similar studies conducted by one individual with a relatively few cases.

4. One of the outstanding advantages of group work should be "getting into practice the results of scientific research."

While the committee feels that each group should select its own problem, suggestions have been made relative to a number of problems for work during the school year 1930-1931. These problems are as follows:

1. *Class size.* The purpose of this study is to determine, as far as possible, whether, in the interest of economy and administration, classes of large size, 50 to 60 pupils, can be taught sufficiently well in comparison with the average-size class of 25 or 30, to warrant a change of administrative policy.

2. *The high-school library.* It is suggested that such questions as the following be discussed, studied, and evaluated:

Use of the library, the librarian, size of the library, distribution of funds, adequacy of collection, book selection, voluntary read-

ing, coöperation between librarian and teachers, pupil participation in library management, criteria for reference selections, and effect upon school library of other libraries.

3. *Records and reports.* The following problems are suggested in connection with the study of records and reports:

a) Principles which should govern the development of a system of records and reports.

b) The advantage of the records and reports used in the schools from which a number of the group come.

c) The development of a record system which will include the major records and reports used in the school, or individual records such as an accumulative personnel record card.

d) A study of the use of records and reports in improving administrative procedure and in evaluating the efficiency of the school.

4. *The reading of high-school teachers.* The purpose of this study is to canvass the reading habits of high-school teachers and to set up a program of purposeful reading.

Plans are under way to coördinate the work of the various groups. Principals interested in forming a study group should communicate with Dr. Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

## BOOK NOTES

## SOVIET RUSSIA

EDITOR'S NOTE: As stated in the September CLEARING HOUSE the American Library Association has agreed to conduct a section each month dealing with new books. Miss Mabel Williams, Supervisor of Work with Schools, The New York Public Library, prepared the material this month.

*Humanity Uprooted*, by Maurice Hindus, is the book for which many of us have been looking. Most people are curious about Soviet Russia, some are skeptical, some antagonistic, and some few sympathetic.

This book will suit all attitudes because the author has succeeded in keeping his personal opinions in the background. He was born in Russia, coming to America when fourteen years of age and since 1923 has visited his native land almost annually. John Dewey says in his introduction,

"I have asked myself what it is that has enabled Mr. Hindus to rise so completely above the trammels of partisanship and to achieve a depiction as 'objective,' as impartial, as it is moving and vivid. The answer which I have found for myself is that he has viewed the scene with the eye of an artist."

It is this quality in Mr. Hindus's writing that I wish to emphasize. Facts are there, but at the same time the book has the characteristics of a stirring novel. The chapter on the "Cossack," for example, carries us breathless through the

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dramatic history of the Cossack from a fearless warrior to the helpless man he is today. "A huge crowd of Cossacks had gathered there . . . and what men they were! . . . Immense, fearsome, with massive backs as upright as those limbless pines in Russia's northern forest . . . Their faces etched themselves on the mind like burning metal."

I challenge any professional man or woman to read the chapter on the "Intelligentsia" without feeling like Alice in Wonderland! It is an acid test of our ability to be purely objective! Since the Declaration of Independence our creed has been that the highest duty and right of man is to develop as an individual. In Soviet Russia it is this noble ambition that condemns us. "The Communists complain that the old-time intellectual is too highly individualized, too conscious of his superiority, and not heartily interested in the social revolution. He may be a more adept worker than the Party man, but he has not saturated himself with the new social spirit, and under the best circumstances he cannot infuse this spirit into his work. He must, therefore, be supplanted by men who will work not for themselves, but for the cause."

The book is made up of three parts, Institutions, People, and Quests. I have been quoting from the second part, People, which is perhaps the most colorful part of the book, but no reader will neglect the other sections.

A librarian's reputation often depends on the books she recommends. On this book I will stake mine with any of you. M. W.

### BOOK REVIEWS

#### SOME RECENT BOOKS

Selected from *The Booklist*  
Published by the A. L. A.

*Modern Acting*, by Helena Chalmers. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930, 150 pp. illus. diag. \$2.00.

An experienced dramatic teacher advises young people who are contemplating a stage career about education, physical requirements, voice, and the elements of acting. Teachers, directors, and amateurs will find it helpful, for it covers make-up, costume, stage business, lighting, and directing.

*The Process of Group Thinking*, by Harrison Sackett Elliott. New York: Association Press, 1928, 229 pp. \$3.00.

This is a book of methods rather than a study of group psychology; club directors, conference work-

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## BOOK REVIEWS

ers, and other leaders of group thought will find it invaluable, and there is in it much suggestive material for teachers, librarians, or any one seeking to further sane thinking rather than emotional prejudice. The technique of presiding as chairman of difficult meetings receives enlightening discussion.

*The Awakening College*, by Clarence Cook Little. New York: W. W. Norton, 1930, 282 pp. \$3.00.

Dr. Little sees everywhere in our colleges and universities unmistakable signs of activity that will involve far-reaching changes. The awakening of the colleges to a new order will be the work of the students, he believes, rather than of faculty or administrators. His criticisms of existing conditions, and of such problems as entrance requirements, fraternities, coeducation, and athletics, are unsparing but not merely destructive, and are based on his wide experience in eastern and middle-western universities.

*Story-Telling to Live Wire Boys*, by George Tasker Miller. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1930, 217 pp. illus. \$2.50.

A book that should prove helpful and suggestive to any one who has occasion to tell stories to boys, especially Boy Scout leaders. The author, as the result of his own experience, treats the subject as an art worthy of intelligent effort. He discusses the selection of stories, their preparation and presentation and the arrangement of the group, and presents his advice in definite statements. A long bibliography of stories and aids for story telling is included.

*The Psychology of Childhood*, by Edgar James Swift. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930, 431 pp. \$2.25.

A reasonable, well-written discussion of those phases of childhood and adolescence which have engaged the attention of psychologists in recent years. It begins with a historical chapter on G. Stanley Hall and other workers of his time. A helpful book for parents and teachers. Chapter bibliographies.

*Good Times for All Time*, by Nina B. Lamkin. New York: French, 1929, 337 pp. illus. \$4.00.

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home, church, school, and community."—*Subtitle*. Index classified under subject. Extensive bibliography. It includes stunts, parties, games, pantomimes, dances, minstrel shows, and pageants, with suggestions for costumes, settings, and equipment.

*Humanity Uprooted* (drawings by Arthur Hawkins, Jr.), by Maurice Gerschon Hindus. New York: Cape and Smith, 1929, 369 pp. illus. \$3.00.

The author, a native of Russia, and now an American lecturer, writes an interesting, unprejudiced account of what he saw during recent visits to that country—of the vast upheaval accompanying the destruction of old institutions and the rebuilding of an entire civilization. The book is one of the most readable ones on Soviet Russia.

## BOOK REVIEWS

*Courses and Careers*, by RALPH P. GALLAGHER. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1930, 404 pages. \$1.40.

This volume is different from customary texts for high-school students. The pupils are shown the need for a carefully planned program of educational and vocational development. A model lesson showing how to use the textbook most profitably and suggestions for self-analysis constitute Part I, addressed to the teacher. Part II, addressed to the pupil, covers similar ground. Part III consists of ninety-nine lessons in eleven groups, the first three covering a general survey of self-development, opportunities, and choice of occupation; the remaining eight with careers in different fields. Each chapter consists of references and notebook work for the students followed by suggestions for oral discussion. Chapters are followed by suggestive thumb-nail sketches.

The author and publishers are to be commended for attempting so successfully to interpret a practical classroom solution of an educational problem—that of directing the self-education of children. The book deserves thorough and sympathetic trial; to the degree that it is successful, it should modify beneficially the type of textbooks which will hereafter be published in all social sciences.

P. W. L. C.

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## BOOK REVIEWS

*An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection*, by ERNEST WALTER TIEGS, Ph.D., Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

The rating of teachers is a much berated theme. We cannot solve it and we cannot let it rest unsolved. The practical exigencies of the profession require that we pass judgment upon teacher achievement and yet we have no means of making our judgments valid. Dr. Tiegs of the University of Southern California in a recent monograph has summed up the previous investigations very ably and added his own efforts in an attempt to solve the problem.

Can those who deal administratively with the selection of teachers defend their practices? Is selection by means of photographs, credentials, recommendations, etc., a valid procedure? The answer according to this latest study can only be a sad shaking of the head. Such procedures are little better than mere chance. All our faithful filling out of blanks (*sic*), all our recommendations, all our wise scrutiny of photographs are practically on a par with the exercises at Monte Carlo. Dr. Tiegs further finds little or no correlation between intelligence and teaching success: between an extensive trade test made up of more than one hundred questions and what the world calls teaching success. The most hopeful technique used in his study was the graphic rating blank. Two such blanks, one of 12 points and the other of 41, were tried. The first yielded a reliability coefficient of  $.79 \pm .03$  and the second a coefficient of  $.93 \pm .01$ . But this proof of reliability is of course no proof of validity of measurement. Does such a device separate the sheep from the goats? Obviously the answer is that we do not know. The author concludes that "there is little scientific evidence available which would make it possible to judge adequately the relative merits of many different techniques which may be used in a given situation."

It is well that we should have a thorough examination of this situation such as this monograph presents. Perhaps by and by it will become clear to all that we cannot measure teaching achievement until we first determine what the specific goals of such achievement are to be. Some of these, such as skills in the fundamental processes and a few others, we are already fairly agreed upon. But the millennium draws on slowly and in the meantime there is much fanning the air about who are good teachers and who are poor teachers. We know far more about good race horses.

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